

Contemporary Psychology

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From Cells to Societies

Roy R. Grinker (Ed.)

Toward a Unified Theory of Human Behavior. New York: Basic Books, 1956. Pp. xv + 375. \$6.50.

Reviewed by DORWIN CARTWRIGHT

Dr. Cartwright is Professor of Psychology and Director of the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan. In the latter position he succeeded Kurt Lewin at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology before that dynamic group, after Lewin's death, went to Michigan. In early life he was influenced, he says, by Köhler, Allport, Boring, and Lewin—no narrow cultist he. Now he is concerned more with field theory than anything else you can find a name for, and he is doing a chapter about it for the American Psychological Association's "Project A" which assesses the current status of psychology with respect to research and method.

WHERE does the important work of behavioral science take place? In the laboratory, by the couch, in the armchair, at the conference table? Everyone is entitled to his own preference, and yours will largely determine how you react to this book. It is a condensation of 1,600 pages of transcribed conference-table talk. Most of the conversation is interesting because most of the participants are veterans at the art of conferencemanship, some having specialized in this form of activity for many years. The editing of the transcription is well done. The end-product reads much better than other publications of this type. But the book is mainly conversation, stronger on the interplay of ideas

than on the persistent follow-through of a single thought. If you have always wanted to eavesdrop on what is said when a group of prominent biological and social scientists get together, then you should like this book. If, however, you want an orderly and systematic presentation of the contributions these scientists have to make, you would do better to look at their individual publications.

The list of participants is impressive: Karl Deutsch, Alfred E. Emerson, George L. Engle, Lawrence K. Frank, Roy R. Grinker, Jules Henry, Florence Kluckhohn, Howard Liddel, Charles Morris, Talcott Parsons, Anatol Rapoport, David Rapaport, Jurgen Ruesch, David Shakow, Alfonso Shimbef, John P. Spiegel, Laura Thompson, James E. P. Toman, and Paul A. Weiss. The disciplines represented include anatomy, anthropology, biology, history, mathematical biology, philosophy, political science, psychiatry, psychology, sociology, and zoology. It would be only bickering to suggest that one or another person or field should have been added for better coverage even though the names of a few of the perennial, interdisciplinary conferees are missing.

What brought all of these people together? Grinker reports that "in 1950 Jurgen Ruesch and I became dissatisfied with the repetitive and stereotyped nature of the many post-war conferences

on research problems in the behavioral sciences. We decided to establish a different type of discussion group composed of scientists from several disciplines for the purpose of approaching a unified theory of behavior." The main differences between this and most other interdisciplinary discussion groups are (1) the very wide range of disciplines represented and (2) the fact that more or less the same group of people met repeatedly over a number of years. This volume contains the talk of the first four of their conferences. The meetings afforded enough time so that a great deal of information could be exchanged, especially in the early sessions when each participant was permitted to present with relatively little interruption his own (or his discipline's) model of human behavior. This part of the transcription provides a showcase of diverse models for dealing with cells and society and almost everything in between.

The stated objective of the conferences, which everyone seems to have accepted reasonably well in practice, was expressed by Ruesch when he said "what we need is a first approximation to a scheme which will enable us to represent physical, psychological, and social events within one system of denotation. If such an undertaking were to be successful, it would provide for an entirely new perspective of the intricate relations between

mind, body, and socio-economic events and would furnish a framework which would consider simultaneously the individual and his surroundings, both in health and disease." This was to be another attempt to use the discussion group to bring about the unity of science. The undertaking, it should be noted, was accompanied by an appropriately modest level of aspiration.

It should come as no surprise, then, to find the same ancient problems causing trouble. They were rarely taken on deliberately; they just had a way of slipping into the conference room. The mind-body problem was there in all of its manifestations, for the conference was trying to arrange a compatible marriage between soma and psyche. Teleology reared its ugly head, and much time was consumed worrying about the propriety of using the word *goal* in polite scientific society. Reductionism insisted on being heard, but there never was agreement on what was to be reduced to what. For a time it did appear, though, that psychology might be dispensed with as long as biology and sociology were kept. And meaning persisted in sneaking in, disguised variously as communications, symbols, and information. While the social scientists insisted that the ability to use symbols distinguished man from non-man, they seemed ready enough to settle on the concept of *information*. It cannot be said that the discussion group solved any of these problems.

THE search for a unified theory of behavior followed many paths. The then-new notions of "transaction" (John Dewey and A. F. Bentley, *Knowing and the Known*) tantalized the participants of the first conference, but nothing very specific ever emerged.

Another approach was in fact a retreat, a retreat into abstractions of the most abstract sort. The following quotations are far from unrepresentative of the conferences. Fortunately, however, they do not reflect a dominant trend of the entire book. "The structure is a function of function." "The cultural activities of the human organisms comprising a local community are behavioral activities which, together with complementary physiologic and morphogenetic activities, tend to be directed toward goals nor-



ROY R. GRINKER (in action)

mally related to the biological ends of maintenance, reproduction and development of the local community as a part of a specific total web-of-life in environment context." Question: "Would you say that is what I would call 'action level,' or that is the analogue of physico-chemical interchange between organism and the other? Physico-chemical interchange is how something gets in and out, but communication is the interchange process of action systems." Answer: "I would say that communication deals with the penetration of boundaries." The danger that the unity of science is to be achieved only through such abstractions appeared very real at many points during the conferences.

The most persistent, and in my opinion the most promising, effort at a solution consisted of seeking for formal similarities in the theoretical models advanced by the various participants. The concepts of *system* and *field* proved to be the most satisfactory, surviving clear through to the end of the fourth conference. These concepts, together with their related ones of *boundary*, *homeostasis*, and *feedback*, seemed to be equally acceptable to biologist, psychologist, sociologist, anthropologist, political scientist, and mathematician. Each concept could be employed in describing something of interest about cells, organisms, persons, small groups, institutions, and societies. Cybernetics, communication theory, and information theory emerged as the heroes

whose formal elegance and general applicability won the day. As the conferences proceeded, more and more attention was directed to fairly technical discussion of these conceptions. During such phases the talk centered on neural networks, automatic gunfire, thermostats, and electronic equipment. Although at such times the social scientists were more impressed than impressive, the tone of the whole discussion was optimistic.

And yet a gnawing uneasiness remained to the end. Do these concepts provide mere analogies? Has a unity of science been achieved? Is the result really a monism, or a socio-psychophysical parallelism? What is actually accomplished by noting that cells and societies both have boundaries and steady states? What is the proper role of analogy in science?

The greatest difficulty centered around the question of whether there is a single set of irreducible quantities such as mass, charge, dielectric constant, distance, time, and temperature which are common to theories of matter and of human behavior. Although the psychologists and sociologists talked about "psychic energy" and "social energy," no one seriously maintained that these were the same thing as physical energy. Parsons proposed that "the counterpart of mass in classical mechanics for action is the 'motivational power' of an act," and he advanced four laws of motion for social

systems. Despite the formal similarities between the theories of Newton and Parsons, the case for a unity of science was still to be made.

The unbridged gap between man and the physical universe, it was generally agreed, is man's unique ability to use symbols. Emerson developed a striking analogy between the gene and the symbol, an analogy which Parsons especially found stimulating. But here again the bridge between the material and the human world was being built on analogy. The only hopeful note introduced in this connection was Rapoport's assertion that information theory might be able to state a quantitative equation relating entropy (and thereby energy) to information. If such an equation can be written and if information, thus defined, can deal adequately with all that is meant by symbol, then a true bridge may be constructed.

Were the conferences successful? Dr. Grinker, in attempting to summarize the accomplishments of the four conferences, was able to list only three principles which had been generally accepted. "Firstly, we recognized that within all systems and in all fields there is a principle of stability which we have considered under the term homeostasis.... One can consider then the second principle as being transactional. We use the term transactional as meaning a reciprocal relationship among all parts of the field and not simply an interaction which is an effect of one system or focus on another.... The third principle which we have discussed in many ways and at many levels is the process of communication of information, which varied from signals characteristic of biological systems to symbols characteristic of social systems." It hardly seems worth writing a book about these. It is difficult, moreover, to understand how the participants could keep up a high level of motivation to the end of the book and indeed into the ninth conference which was being planned when the book went to press.

The satisfaction from participating in these conferences, and from reading the book, must derive from something other than a sense of accomplishment with respect to the goal of unifying science. It arises, I believe, from the fact that such conferences give a glimpse at what the other fellows are doing behind their

laboratory or study doors. Such conferences are a practical substitute for going back and taking all the courses we missed when we were being educated in our specialty. And there is a fascination in discovering that the other disciplines have been using ideas and concepts similar to our own, a fascination which is downright irresistible when the other discipline has higher status than our own.

THE fundamental danger in the whole enterprise is recognized by Grinker in his final summary. "As far as our general interests are concerned, virtually every special topic taken up has been left at the descriptive level. This has served a useful function in obtaining a broader knowledge of what is going on in the world of science. But if we are to make substantial progress, we have two alternatives. The

first is to work on the most general level, the second is to take a much smaller specific problem and examine it in terms of the different disciplines and tenets represented in the group and seek the implications of such examination for our general problem." Subsequent conferences, we are told, will choose the second alternative. Whether this choice is tantamount to abandoning the original objective of unifying science, time alone will tell. But perhaps such an outcome would not be disastrous after all, for Toman observed to the group at the very end of the fourth conference, "It seems to me that in the course of this conference we have never really asked ourselves what the use of the unified theory will be."

Did I find the book stimulating? Yes. Would I like to read another one like it? No, I've had enough.

The Insect Type of Progress

E. A. Peel

The Psychological Basis of Education. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. vii + 303. \$6.00.

May V. Seagoe

A Teacher's Guide to the Learning Process. Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown, 1956. Pp. viii + 309. \$4.00.

Reviewed by GOODWIN WATSON

Dr. Watson is Professor of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, having been connected with Teachers College for more than thirty years. He published a review of the status of educational psychology in 1926 and a survey of the past twenty-five years' progress in that field in 1956. He is mixed up with graduate study in social psychology and with group psychotherapy, was once president of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, and has been active in promoting human welfare in many ways.

THE field of educational psychology today seems analogous to those civilizations which the historian, Toynbee, classified as "arrested." The Eskimos, Polynesians, Nomads, Osmanlis, and Spartans made brilliant beginnings, but their initial *tour de force* apparently

exhausted their creative energies and their civilizations hypertrophied. In the early decades of this century, educational psychologists were pioneering. Thorndike's cats, Pavlov's dogs, Watson's rats, and Köhler's apes were learning energetically. Current textbooks in educational psychology, be they even so different as the two reviewed together here, offer little beyond restatements of the old themes. Why the stagnation? The problems of educators have multiplied and the number of 'educational psychologists' has increased, but few significant contributions of fact, theory, or principle have been added to those summarized by Thorndike's three volumes in 1913. Toynbee's analysis of the arrested civilizations led him to the pertinent conclusion: "The cause of their strange and tragic arrest, at a moment when they have already

issued, quick-born, from the womb of Time, and are standing, alive with youthful energy, on the threshold of their life-course, may be explained... in psychological terms as a mental reversion from the human toward the insect type of mental rhythm: from the blundering but progressive mobility of reason to the infallible but inflexible rigidity of instinct."

Each of these two new textbooks is designed to bring to teachers a grasp of contributions from the accumulated scientific studies of human experience and behavior. One author, Professor Peel, is a proper Englishman, trained in the tradition of Galton and Spearman, actively interested in test construction and factor analysis, and currently Head of the Department of Education at the University of Birmingham. The other, Dr. May V. Seagoe (now Mrs. John C. Gowan) is a California woman, who started her career of teaching and counseling over thirty years ago in the Los Angeles public schools, and who is presently Professor of Education in the University of California at Los Angeles.

The Peel book covers succinctly and in formal lecture-room style the topics usually found in texts on educational psychology: learning—individual differences—personal development. A final chapter recognizes that persons live in a society. The Seagoe manual concentrates mainly on the processes of learning and teaching. Peel's approach emphasizes theoretical psychological systems and presents numerous charts and statistical distributions. One finds only occasional and slight reference to the teaching situation. Peel begins with formal definitions, and goes on to present Associationism, Connectionism, and Conditioned Response theories. Following Hull and Tolman come Wertheimer, Köhler, and Lewin. Peel compares the mental 'factors' proposed by Spearman with those of Thompson, Burt, and Thurstone. In reviewing personality, he notes the typologies of McDougall, Jung, Kretschmer, Sheldon, Guilford, and Cattell. He stays close to the objectively defined and seldom tries to develop educational implications. Peel's relation to present British school-practice appears most clearly in his serene faith that tests and ratings of eleven-year-olds can identify well enough those children who are

book-minded and who should be put in a "grammar school" and go on to a university, as distinguished from the larger class which should be directed to practical, mechanical pursuits.

AT the other or pedagogical extreme, Seagoe's book seems to have been written primarily to improve the daily work of teachers in the elementary school. Five of the eleven chapters deal in some fashion with "Motivation." Each chapter, after a few paragraphs referring to "studies" which are occasionally no further identified, goes on to "principles" and then to a section headed "In the Classroom," a section which frequently reports just what one good teacher did. At the end of each chapter and again in a summary at the close of the book, Seagoe restates her maxims.

The salaries of teachers have fallen so far behind those in other occupations that recruits are now being drawn more and more from lower intellectual levels. Hence there may be need to pontificate to them as Professor Seagoe does in such aphorisms as those that follow here. Student minds critical enough to be nauseated by the obvious are probably rare in her classes.

"Stress quality of work as well as speed."

"Avoid giving a child tasks that are too long or too complex for him."

"Either too much or too little guidance is ineffective."

"Relieve children of unnecessary distractions."

"There are many kinds of effective short-term purposes."

"Children's interests result from their experiences."

"Evaluate each learning experience in a suitable way."

Some propositions which are much less obvious represent Dr. Seagoe's generalization based on single investigations which strike this reviewer as far from conclusive. For example:

"Cooperation is less effective than competition as a stimulus to work."

"Form groups that are homogeneous."

Women teachers, harassed by obstreperous small boys, may welcome Miss Seagoe's counsel: "Use positive motivation more often with girls, negative forms more freely with boys," but such advice

seems unlikely to alleviate their predicament.

Other admonitions may be sound enough, but a bit difficult to implement; for example: "Dignify all goals so that each child can retain self-respect"; or "Introduce feeling tone only into activities that you wish the child to remember." A few are difficult to comprehend; for example: "Let attitudes and appreciations fall below the level of recognition."

WHAT is psychologically valid and practically useful to teachers in either book could practically all have been found in the textbooks of a generation or two ago: the distribution of individual differences; the importance of active involvement in the learning activity; the law of (prompt) effect; the value of distributed practice; the need to teach for conscious generalization and transfer. The hundreds of learning experiments currently reported each year in the psychological research literature seem not to be adding understanding which teachers can use. A distinguished educator, well trained in psychology, remarked recently, "I find that I can learn a great deal about learning from the psychoanalysts and from the students of group dynamics but very little from the studies on psychology of learning!" The best hope for fresh vigor in our moribund educational psychology is probably a liaison with the more dynamic movements in psychology.

Educational psychologists have not yet assimilated the implications of unconscious motivation, resistance, transference, reaction formation, ego-ideals, and related psychoanalytic concepts. Teachers, who work so much of the time as group leaders, are not ordinarily given much understanding of the processes by which individuals cohere into groups and participate effectively in discovering group purposes and in facilitating movement toward group goals. Educators today, facing conflicts between public and parochial schools, conflicts between norms of socioeconomic classes, conflicts over racial desegregation and international tensions, especially need more contributions from social psychology. It is a serious deprivation that the students introduced to psychological systems by

Peel or instructed in principles of teaching by Seagee will not be enabled to grasp any of the major insights of Freud, of a Training Group at Bethel, or of research in intergroup relations.

Mesomorphs in Mischief

Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor Glueck

Physique and Delinquency.

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956. Pp. xviii + 339. \$6.00.

Reviewed by W. H. SHELDON

who is the Director of the Constitution Project, which has to do with the somatotyping of human beings (and nothing to do with government or naval warfare). The Project has branches at Columbia University, the University of Oregon, and the University of California at Berkeley (and no trunk anywhere, says Sheldon). Nearly everyone knows The Varieties of Human Physique and The Varieties of Temperament. Sheldon himself is a 3-4-5 in physique, who must know more about somatotyping than anyone else and who also, as he says, knows for certain that he does not yet understand the problem.

In this book the Gluecks, who are already a famous husband-wife research team on juvenile delinquency, turn their attention primarily to the physical structure of their subjects. Reporting on the same 500 delinquent Massachusetts youngsters on whose careers they have written two earlier books (*Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency*, 1950, and *Delinquents in the Making*, 1952), Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck consider the problem of comprehending behavior against the background of a knowledge of somatotypes. Their report is a statistical comparison of 500 delinquents with 500 non-delinquents from the Boston school system who are used as a control.

This Glueck report is no hasty rushing into print with a batch of 'correlations' between somatotypes and delinquency. These authors have pondered their material. They are aware that the somatotypic description of an individual, far from supplying an explanation of all his

conduct, is actually no more than a necessary starting point, or organizing principle, from which to initiate a study of conduct and behavior. In their introductory chapter they quote with approval a good orientational statement from Kline and Tenney:

"The ultimate answers probably lie in the biochemical and biophysical fields. Direct approach to the problem through biochemistry and biophysics has, however, resulted in a welter of data that are consistent only in the fact that they are extremely variable. We have already obtained considerable information... which leads us to believe that many physiological responses—and ultimately the biochemical and biophysical relations upon which they rest—vary in direct relationship with somatotype. The introduction of somatotyping as an 'organizing principle' may quite possibly make order out of what is now chaos because of individual differences." (N. S. Kline and A. M. Tenney, Constitutional factors in the prognosis of schizophrenia, *Amer. J. Psychiat.*, 1950, **107**, 434-441.)

Using the somatotype as an organizing principle, the Gluecks addressed themselves to the task of shedding light on one of the most persistent questions a human being can ask: Are structure and behavior so related in the patterning of human activities that a systematic description of individual variation in structure (somatotype classification) would be worth the pains it would cost? And would it thus contribute some beginnings toward a sociological, and therefore a criminological discipline?

In their book, criminologist Sheldon Glueck and sociologist Eleanor Glueck report a study aimed both courageously and skillfully at answering this question. Courageous—because carried out during a time when the social sciences have been dominated by a curiously motivated group of people—really a sort of lunatic fringe so devoted to a one-sided approach to psychologic dynamics that even the mention of physical structure has been considered an infuriating intrusion if not a heretical subversion. Skillful—because the Gluecks are well trained, well equipped, and full of experience in their subject matter.

Their major problem was how to get their 500 delinquent youths and the 500 controls somatotyped, after they had

collected the standardized somatotype photographs. The Constitution Laboratory, which undertakes to publish norms for somatotyping, had not (and I regret to say has not yet) published norms for somatotyping boys. Therefore an objective, standard procedure for this important step was not available.

The Gluecks secured, however, the cooperation of Drs. Dupertuis, Seltzer, and Tenney—three men who had been closely associated with somatotyping—and these three between them worked out a resourceful compromise. Instead of attempting to distribute the 1,000 boys among the 88 somatotypes now known to exist in the adult male population, and instead of trying to use objective criteria as the basis for somatotyping, they simply examined the photographs and on the basis of inspectional criteria arranged these in thirteen categories:

Extreme endomorphs
Endomorphs
Mesomorphic endomorphs
Ectomorphic endomorphs
Extreme mesomorphs
Mesomorphs
Endomorphic mesomorphs
Ectomorphic mesomorphs
Extreme ectomorphs
Ectomorphs
Endomorphic ectomorphs
Mesomorphic ectomorphs
Balanced

What was done amounts really to subjective somatotyping on a three-point scale where norms were not available for the standardized, objective somatotyping on a seven-point scale with which the scientific public is more or less familiar. This was like measuring stature in feet where a finer scale was not at hand. The boy becomes a six-footer, a five-footer or a four-footer and the intermediate gradations are lost.

With so coarse an instrument applied to structure one might not expect resulting statistics to reflect much relationship between structure and behavior. The Gluecks, however, had in their files one of the most complete and best organized collections of behavioral data ever assembled on a sizable group of subjects. Both the number of cases and the quality of the behavioral data seemed sufficient to reflect any marked statistical trends that might be present, even against a

matrix of extremely coarse mesh on the side of the structural criteria. Indeed this study presented one of the first instances in history when somatotypically arranged physical criteria could be studied with statistical adequacy against a good collection of behavioral data. For this alone the Gluecks should be congratulated. That they ran into findings confirmatory of common sense, in a time when common sense has been rather a stranger to social science, is extraordinary.

The Gluecks found that those youngsters of sufficiently notable delinquent achievement to qualify for one of the Massachusetts schools of correction are on the whole decidedly mesomorphic. Here are their percentages:

	Delinquents	Control
Mesomorphs	80.1	30.7
Ectomorphs	14.4	39.6
Endomorphs	11.8	15.0
Balanced	13.7	14.7
	100.	100.

The body of the book is mainly an elaboration of statistical relationships between what the Gluecks call the four "physique types"—endomorph, mesomorph, ectomorph and balanced—and the Glueck data on various traits and attitudes as measured by psychiatric interview, Rorschach tests, and by their own data gathering devices.

The entire presentation is interspersed with speculative philosophy centered on the question of why and how mesomorphs, granted their greater delinquency potential, do actually become delinquent. The authors are aware that this question is extremely complicated and it is the feeling of the present reviewer that the Gluecks have here done their best writing to date. Delinquency is not, of course, an inevitable expression of mesomorphy. Nevertheless conspicuously persistent criminality—delinquency triumphant—appears to derive from a pattern of personality in which predominant mesomorphy is an almost necessary ingredient. The same statement could be made for successful football, or successful practical politics, or for success at anything that demands vital energy, love of risk, lust for power, physical courage, ruthless address to a direct objective. These are mesomorphic characteristics. Successful delinquency

is one of the things that requires them, as the Gluecks have so clearly shown.

The 500 criminal youngsters in the Glueck series had addressed themselves to their delinquent objectives with an energy and lusty enterprise equal to that which the 500 best young football players in Massachusetts bring to bear on their football objective. When the Gluecks examined their varsity of young criminals, they found that this particular aristocracy demanded, among other things, an aristocracy of mesomorphy. That was, after all, common sense.

lated to organizational structure and patterns of personal interaction; that subordinates' perceptions are related to leaders' behavior; and that organizational perceptions are related to organizational effectiveness.

Whether these hypotheses imply a model with perception as an intervening variable between structure, personal interactions, and leadership, on the one hand, and effectiveness, on the other, is not clear.

The data are the responses of 696 men from ten submarines who were asked to chart their superiors, subordinates, and peers. The 4,094 responses obtained are compared with the 3,607 formal chart relations, and the disparities are classified as omissions, echelon errors, and unit errors (naming of outsiders).

There are disparities between perceptions and formal chart relations. Only 60 per cent of the men's responses correctly match the organization chart. But although the correlations between the number of "perceptual errors" made by a submarine crew and various measures of its effectiveness are negative, the correlations are low. Relationships between types of perceptual error and descriptions of leaders' behavior, sociometric measures of personal interaction, organizational structure, unit size, morale measures, and other variables are also explored.

One wonders if the data are meaningful enough or reliable enough to deserve such intensive examination. If organization charts are notoriously inadequate descriptions of operating organizations and if the instructions to the respondents leave vague whether "official" or "operating" relations are wanted, is it meaningful to describe the disparities as "perceptual errors?" What is the reliability of this measure of organizational perception? How stable are the organization charts themselves over a period of time? Do rank-order correlations between ratings of effectiveness and perceptual errors represent an adequate test (when the N is 10) of the hypothesis that perceptions are related to organizational effectiveness?

Certainly this study leaves still open the question of whether a one-time static measure has any promise for describing a phenomenon that is essentially dynamic—that of organization behavior.

Who Knows Who's Boss?

Ellis L. Scott

Leadership and Perceptions of Organization. (Ohio Studies in Personnel, Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 82.) Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University, 1956. Pp. xvii + 122. \$2.00.

Reviewed by ROBERT L. CHAPMAN

of the RAND Corporation at Santa Monica, California. He began as an engineer, took a PhD with L. L. Thurstone, who also began as an engineer, and has been mixing psychometrics, engineering, and industrial psychology with more humanistic arts ever since.

WHAT characterizes a good organization and how are these characteristics measured? The Ohio State Leadership Studies represent an attempt to develop techniques for measuring organizational characteristics and to discover whether these measures distinguish the good organization from the not-so-good.

This particular monograph and its companion—*Leadership and Its Effects upon the Group*—explore a measure of organizational perceptions and its relationship to group effectiveness.

The hypotheses are modest: that organizational perceptions differ from formal organization chart relationships; that organizational perceptions are re-

Sullivan's Two Premises

Harry Stack Sullivan

Clinical Studies in Psychiatry. (Ed. by Helen Swick Perry, Mary Ladd Gawel, and Martha Gibbon.) New York: W. W. Norton, 1956. Pp. xiv + 386. \$5.50.

Reviewed by ALLEN T. DITTMANN

Dr. Dittmann is a clinical psychologist in the Laboratory of Psychology at the National Institute of Mental Health in Bethesda, Maryland. He has been a Sullivan enthusiast ever since he got his doctorate at the University of California in Berkeley seven years ago, but he says that close association with other enthusiasts, as well as the writing of this review, has pushed him over toward more deliberate assessment. His chief interest is psychotherapy, all and every kind, and he has some rather special concern with the treatment of schizophrenics.

FEW men have influenced their own and neighboring fields more and written less than Harry Stack Sullivan. He did, however, deliver a large number of lectures, only some of which were intended for publication. The remainder never appeared in their complete sequences, and those interested in Sullivan could usually get no more than glimpses of his thinking. Since his death in 1949 the William Alanson White Psychiatric Foundation's Committee on Publications of Sullivan's Writings has selected, from among his lectures, material to give a complete picture of his work and has published three volumes. *Clinical Studies in Psychiatry*, the third book of the series, draws from lectures given at Chestnut Lodge in 1943.

Sullivan's career as a psychiatrist began in the late '20s. He early became acquainted with William Alanson White, who was medical director of the District of Columbia's public psychiatric institution, St. Elizabeths Hospital, for many years, later was largely responsible for establishing a psychiatric foundation in Dr. White's name. At St. Elizabeths and Sheppard and Enoch Pratt, a private mental hospital in Baltimore, he had his early experience dealing with schizophrenic patients, and his clinical contributions to their treatment rather than custodial care constituted one of the

most enduring aspects of his work. He received his psychoanalytic training in New York in the early '30s, returned to Washington, where he spent the rest of his life.

The Washington School of Psychiatry, founded in 1936, was the seat of the intellectual and training activities of the school of thought which Sullivan led. He did not like to think of it as a school of thought, however, since he regarded himself as a teacher and thinker in the psychoanalytic tradition. He had little use for the belief that being in the psychoanalytic tradition meant slavish adherence to early psychoanalytic thought or cutting oneself off from other intellectual currents. Accordingly he made and maintained close contact with social scientists, notably with Sapir, Lasswell, and Benedict, whose different points of view of human relations he tried to take into account in his thinking about psychiatric problems.

Sullivan's belief that Freud was the beginner of psychoanalysis, whose work could be built upon although not final, has led many to classify him as a 'neo-Freudian,' along with Horney and Fromm, actively opposed to many of Freud's basic premises. Others have thought that Sullivan wished to take over psychoanalysis and apply his own terms to its concepts, setting himself up as its master. Neither of these views is correct. Sullivan said many times that his thinking will be outmoded as further data come in from many sources, and he was often at pains to avoid making flat statements which might be used as dogma. His brilliant clinical ability was sought by many psychoanalysts who consulted with him in difficult cases. While some of his theory, as outlined in this book, is different from psychoanalytic notions—his treatment of obsessionalism, for instance—he added to psychoanalysis rather than changed it. What are his additions? *Clinical Studies*



HARRY STACK SULLIVAN

in Psychiatry is most informative in demonstrating the practical effects of Sullivan's theoretical contributions.

LIKE many books called 'clinical psychiatry,' the first half deals with 'symptoms,' how to recognize them and what they mean, and the second takes up the diagnostic entities (with organic conditions and their symptoms omitted). Viewed as an advanced text in psychiatry (his audience had already had considerable training), the book is confusingly titled. It contains no 'studies' but is rather a statement of a very experienced and independently thinking psychiatrist's clinical philosophy. In another sense the book is really a text on schizophrenia. All of the clinical entities, especially obsessionalism, are seen as defenses against flooding of anxiety which leads to the eruption of the early thinking which makes up the major symptomatology of schizophrenia.

The first half is called *Dynamisms of Living and Their Misuse in Mental Disorder*, and he covers these in terms of a tripartite descriptive scheme: the self-system, the rest of the personality, and sleep. The self-system refers to that set of processes or perhaps that part of the personality which maintains security (which is purely social) and avoids or minimizes anxiety. The rest of the personality refers to bodily needs, their satisfaction, and interference with their

satisfaction. Sleep is discussed with respect to how much rest it affords in different conditions, how much it is interfered with, and, in connection with more severe disturbances, how much separation of awareness there is between sleep and the waking state. Dreams are not taken up in detail.

It is in this first half of the book that most readers will be troubled by Sullivan's vocabulary. He uses some terms which other writers use, but with a slightly different meaning, such terms as *sublimation* and *dissociation*. Others of his terms refer to concepts which other theorists call by different names where there is really very little difference in the concepts, such as *self-system*, *selective inattention*, *witting* and *unwitting*. In still other instances Sullivan uses an unusual term for a concept which has a commonplace name, but where Sullivan's change includes valuable additional meaning: here I am thinking especially of *referential process*, which refers to what in later life is called *thought*, but which is at a higher level of abstraction so that it may include infantile reveries which cannot in the same sense be called *thinking*. The indirection in Sullivan's writing is annoying to this reviewer, especially in this first half of the book: the whole section on symptoms is considerably lengthened by the many elaborate phrases. Though 'nicely' turned and perhaps appealing to a lecture audience, they require extra work of the reading audience.

If the reader can get into synchrony with Sullivan's vocabulary and style, he will find that what makes Sullivan's point of view valuable is a consequence of his emphasis on two premises: (a) the locus of the important aspects of any personality or its disorders is in the relationships of the person with other people, and (b) there are no qualitative differences among people. The first of these principles goes with the phrase *interpersonal relations*, which has been *de rigueur* in psychological writing for some years now. I think its real meaning is connected with operationism: the only way the observer can know anything about what goes on inside another person is by the other person's behavior, and the most important clues can be found in his communications to other

people. Such communications may take different forms, may have different degrees of comprehensibility to the observer, but are still the only things the observer has to go on. Some psychoanalytic critics have said that Sullivan thus denies the importance of intrapsychic conflict. I find no evidence for this contention: Sullivan denies that formulations of cases based solely on concepts of intrapsychic dynamics tell the whole story. He infers intrapsychic systems from interpersonal behavior, as *vide* the concept of the self-system and its development, but he argues that these systems are of importance only in determining behavior.

The second premise is familiarly phrased by Sullivan as "we are all much more simply human than otherwise." The "dynamisms of living," which are called symptoms in traditional textbooks, are used from time to time by all people. What makes them symptoms of disturbance is the necessity for controlling anxiety by constant use of one or another of the dynamisms. For a given patient one of these dynamisms may take up most of waking life, but the patient is not on this account any different species of animal from the observer. Some have been indignant that in this way Sullivan reduces everyone to the level of the most regressed psychotic. I do not think he degrades anyone—his sometimes insulting language is directed more toward the smugness of those who consider themselves safely different in kind from the patients they examine and thus less sensitive to their patients' shaky self-esteem. On the positive side, Sullivan in this premise gives the clinician a way of understanding the patient's very craziness. In the long run he also gives reassurance to the clinician who may wonder if he is psychotic when he finds himself occasionally understanding psychotic behavior.

The payoff of the two Sullivanian premises comes in the second part of the book, in the discussion of the clinical entities. I shall illustrate by his chapters on schizophrenia, which take up almost as many pages as the chapters on hysteria, obsessionalism, and the manic-depressive psychosis combined. First, Sullivan does not believe that "simple dementia praecox" belongs in the category of schizophrenia, but rather among the organic psychoses. The other tradi-

tional forms he believes are among the stages of development of schizophrenia. The first stage, catatonia, he calls "the essential schizophrenic picture," and is what occurs at the time of onset, often so briefly that it goes unnoticed. What happens subsequently depends upon the patient's previous experiences, chiefly during preadolescence. If he has never experienced intimacy with others of his same age at that time, he will despair of the possibility of future intimacy and lapse into what is usually described as hebephrenia. If there has been some experience of intimacy, he may remain in the catatonic state or move on toward paranoia. For many patients these phases or stages are never fixed. Movement from one to another is a prognostic sign to be watched for, and for this reason Sullivan takes a dim view of classifying schizophrenics as to 'type': having labeled a patient, one is less likely to be on the lookout for these changes.

In dealing with schizophrenics clinically, and in treating them, Sullivan makes full use of the two premises mentioned above. Though the patient's words be used idiosyncratically (or be new words), he communicates with them. The task is to find those times when the patient is free enough of anxiety for the words to be used in the same way that the therapist uses them, and to capitalize on those opportunities. One must thus establish contact in order to obtain more continued communication. Loss of contact is viewed as loss of control of awareness because of flooding by anxiety, and is therefore a signpost of an area to be treated more gently. The therapist works with the form of the relationship rather than the content of words, for words can have idiosyncratic meaning, but interpersonal dynamisms cannot. These dynamisms have been part of the experience of both patient and therapist; otherwise the therapist could not be of use to the patient.

One could say that Sullivan's philosophy has become psychiatric currency and that the publication of these old lectures serves little purpose. My own impression is that the philosophy is written about more than acted upon. While he lived, Sullivan was an active though sometimes irritating force in

keeping his ideas alive through teaching. It will now be difficult for his philosophy to be continued in the face of the greater organization and popularity of the psychoanalytic movement. Certainly these posthumous volumes make it possible for his views to become part of training curricula—in graduate schools of psychology, in psychiatric residency programs, and perhaps even in psychoanalytic institutes.

A Blunted Arrow Against Flesch

Sam Duker and Thomas Nally

The Truth about Your Child's Reading. New York: Crown Publishers, 1956. Pp. 181. \$3.00.

Reviewed by JOHN B. CARROLL

who is Associate Professor of Education in the Graduate School of Education, and Director of the Laboratory for Research in Instruction, both at Harvard University. He has a long-standing interest in linguistics and the psychology of language, particularly as applied to educational problems, is the author of *The Study of Language* (1953) and the editor of *Benjamin Lee Whorf's Language, Thought, and Reality* (1956).

This book is explicitly and unabashedly aimed at the infamous *Why Johnny Can't Read* by Rudolf Flesch. In format and style, it mocks its target, even to the use of a chalk-and-blackboard caption on the dust jacket. Addressed to the same "concerned" parents whose attention Flesch has been able to gain all too successfully, its purpose is to provide them with "a dependable yardstick with respect to the teaching of reading at the elementary school level." First off, I shall say that Duker and Nally have indeed provided parents with a reliable yardstick. Their writing is as responsible as Flesch's was irresponsible. One can only hope that their efforts will help in checking the stream of books about Johnny and his reading problems that are coming from Flesch's hands.

It is regrettable but true that it is difficult to deliver a rebuttal to an emotional appeal which will match it for

excitement and attention-getting qualities. Duker and Nally had to rely upon a calm, rational appeal of the 'let's-look-at-the-facts' variety. After subjecting Flesch's arguments and 'evidence' to an appropriate dissection and inviting the reader to apply to Flesch's statements some of the injunctions against over-generalization which he himself has made in his other writings, they present an extended survey and defense of actual practices in the teaching of reading in American schools. Apt quotations from psychological writings give the lie to Flesch's claim that the "phonetic" method is supported both by empirical research and psychological theory (including Gestalt theory). Quite properly, the authors suggest that parents take an active and cooperative interest in what goes on in the schools, and they present (with appropriate cautions) school observation check lists to help the parent evaluate school reading programs.

Is the book as forceful a counter-agent against Flesch as it could have been? The reader who has previously swallowed Flesch will very likely have some residual doubts on some points. For example, Duker and Nally do not do so good a job as they might have done in showing how the modern school presents "phonics" as a method of word attack. The teacher, whom they would have teach the recognition of *ship* by comparison with a previously-learned *hip*, would not be following sound practices. They utterly fail to provide a satisfactory answer to Flesch's references to linguists like Bloomfield, and, if anything, misrepresent the linguist's position more than Flesch does. They present a weaker case than they need to when they fail to come soon enough to the aid of elementary readers which write about "Come, Dick," "See, see, Jane," and the quacking of ducks.

Perhaps the biggest question which will be left in the mind of the adherent of Flesch after he puts down this book is how Flesch could have been so wrong, if he is the scholarly, research-competent person that Duker and Nally say he is. It is unfortunate that Duker and Nally did not attempt to forestall such a question, as they might have done by exploring the possible motives for Flesch's attacks on school reading programs.

Many Siblings

James H. S. Bossard and Eleanor Stoker Boll

The Large Family System: An Original Study in the Sociology of Family Behavior. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1956. Pp. 325. \$6.00.

Reviewed by JUDSON T. LANDIS

who is Professor of Family Sociology in the University of California at Berkeley. His wife and he have published five books on success and adjustment in marriage since 1948 and he thinks that he must have taught family sociology to 12,000 university students during the last decade.

ALTHOUGH sociologists have made many approaches to the study of the family and family systems, much of the examination of family life since 1930 has tended toward the testing of hypotheses or the evaluations of concepts through statistical studies such as those by Burgess, Cottrell, Locke, Terman, Wallin, Hill, Landis, and others—studies relating personality factors and background factors to marital adjustment.

Professor Bossard has, through the years, made some unique contributions to the literature in family sociology through his perceptive, non-statistical studies of some of the social processes involved in family life and child rearing. This newest work, which attempts to assess the significance of family size in child development, follows his previous pattern of opening up for study an area of basic importance and presenting concepts which should lead to new and significant research by others.

Although the authors of *The Large Family System* summarize their data in 58 tables, they do not represent their data as a statistically based study and they make no claim for representativeness in the one hundred families they studied. The information upon which the book is based was gathered from individuals, wherever they could be found, who had grown up in families of six or more children and who were willing to be interviewed or to give written reports concerning their life experiences in a large family. Bossard and Boll state: "The chief effort and interest of the study

have been to develop insight and hypotheses, since we believe that these are the essence of primary research. No one particular technique of research has been followed: the emphasis being rather on securing all possible information and organizing it so as to give it the most possible meaning for the formulation of hypotheses for future studies."

In terms of numbers of families, large families, defined as those having six or more children, are a very small percentage of families in the United States (2.2 per cent in 1940), but in terms of the number of children reared large families represent a much larger segment of society. In 1940, 5,134,159 or 13 per cent of all children under 18 years of age were found in families of six or more. Between 1946 and 1950, 7.2 per cent of all births (1,270,144) were sixth and over in the birth order. Members of large families are a significant proportion of the population.

Professor Bossard and his research associate, Eleanor Boll, describe many characteristics of the life situation in large families. Their findings raise doubt concerning the more or less idealized conceptions which have been somewhat uncritically accepted by those concerned with studying family life as well as by others. (*Cheaper by the Dozen* presents the popular conception of a large family.)

CERTAIN contrasts appear. Some large families are the result of responsible parenthood, but others are the result of a specific irresponsibility. Some large families are planned but more are unplanned. While some large families may draw together, having each other to rely upon in times of trouble or crises, large families are in general more vulnerable and more crisis-prone than are small, and the older children in large families are likely to be sacrificed to the common need. In large families children may be reared more by older siblings than by their parents, the emphasis is more upon group needs of children than upon individual needs, and there is more apt to be a differentiation and specialization of roles of children within the family. It is obvious that many of the characteristics of the large family must be considered significant in their relationship to personality-formation in children.

Asking About Preferences

Ake Bjerstedt

The Methodology of Preferential Sociometry: Selected Trends and Some Contributions. (Sociometry Monographs, No. 37.) Lund, Sweden (University of Lund): Author, 1956. Pp. 156.

Reviewed by EDGAR F. BORGATTA

who is Professor of Sociology in the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences of New York University and also Associate Social Psychologist with the Russell Sage Foundation. He knows more about the psychology and sociology of small groups than of anything else, is one of the present editors of *Small Groups*, a past editor of *Group Psychotherapy* and of *Sociometry*.

THIS monograph should be gratifying for the American reader. It reflects a sensitivity and responsiveness to empirical research not often enough associated with our European colleagues in the area of social psychology. Especially, however, it constitutes a thoughtful and careful attempt to organize the concepts and the literature of "sociometry."

Bjerstedt quickly disposes of the Orwellian-1984-type reconstruction of history which is found in autobiographical accounts in this area, and places Moreno and others in a reasonable and sane perspective. His scholarship is quickly located not only by his ability to handle outlandish claims of discoveries, but also by his ability to find parallels for work which is often ignored by persons who work in or in response to the cultish interest that sociometry has so often represented. Of particular importance is the attention that he gives to earlier foreign publications.

Bjerstedt's approach is a cross between a review of the literature, a poll of the experts, and an attempt to compromise differences of opinion. In discussing the definition and delimitation of sociometry, for example, he reviews the published definitions, but he also presents the results from a questionnaire sent to experts asking their preferred

definitions. This procedure brings into acute contrast the different frames of reference that come together in one arena, as well as inconsistent uses by even the same person. Nevertheless one may draw the conclusion that attention to labels really has little or nothing to do with the accumulation of scientifically verified knowledge.

A substantial contribution in this volume is Bjerstedt's orderly review of the published data on different methods of asking preference questions. Among unlimited choice, k choice, total ranking, total rating, and pair comparisons, the k -choice method is indicated as questionable on the empirical basis of low correlation to the others. In this general connection, he discusses in a useful manner both the logical and the empirical problems, including those of the number and meaning of criteria utilized and the levels of reality involved. On the other hand, one must note that there is an inherent limitation in considering "sociometric measures" as something special, rather than as a class within a broader framework of personality measures. For example, the closely related work in the ratings of persons on their characteristics by their peers, which has become an important area of sociometrics, is omitted. The name of Rosalind Dymond (Cartwright), which is important in the area of interpersonal perception, does not even appear in the bibliography, and this omission is symptomatic of the bias. Nevertheless the bibliography of 550 items, within its defined limit, is well chosen.

Bjerstedt gives a good proportion of space to a contribution of his own in the mapping of social relations, and also to the question of developing a shorthand for indicating relationships. His handling of this subject is sophisticated, and this section of the monograph will be particularly rewarding to clinical as well as social psychologists.



It should not be forgotten that the laws of nature cannot be invented; they must be discovered.

—J. McKEEN CATTELL



CP SPEAKS. . .

HORACE B. ENGLISH's dictionary—it will probably be called *A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms: a Guide to Usage*—is likely to be out in June or July by grace of Longmans, Green. Over 600 pages. It might well be dedicated to H. W. Fowler (*Modern English Usage*) for it is his spirit that animates the editorial comment. English by English. Admonitions and disapprobations. There are entries, for instance, on *arbitrary definition*, on *bogus erudition*, on *neologism*.

For example, "the most unfortunate form of bogus erudition is use of a technical term in a vague or general sense. This adds to the offense of pretentiousness that of depriving more accurate writers of a convenient or necessary expression for a legitimate meaning." "Most Latin and Greek neologisms were introduced partly in an effort to avoid the lack of precision of many popular terms, but partly (esp. in medicine) to bewilder or impress the layman. They often fail in the first purpose: see *phobia* and *adiodochokinesis*. As for the second, it is well to remember that if you try too hard to parade your erudition, it is bound to slip and show you're bogus." (This comment seems to imply that all erudition among the dictionary's users is going to be bogus. How can true erudition, even on parade, slip and show you are bogus when you are not bogus?) "An outright manufactured word like *wall* or *troland* is much to be preferred to a clumsy teutonic piling of one word on another—as in 'discriminal process continua.'" "*Photon* is bad Greek. . . . Nevertheless it is a soundly conceived neologism. We get *photon* by easy analogy with *ergon*, a term already established."

Certainly a buoyant dictionary of this sort is going to be more fun than the interminable solemn iteration of immutables. Put personal values in a dictionary and you put in not only the chance but surely the certainty of error. That is where the fun lies. And how does a grammarian avoid these traps? Fowler did it

by his charm, by substituting the quizzical eyebrow for the bared fang. And there was once another Horace whose writing showed more grace than anger. Here's hoping for a dictionary that is mostly right, though sometimes wrong, and always gently humorous when wrong.

PICTURES. As far as *CP* can find out, nobody dislikes the pictures of authors that *CP* prints. They are fun. But some readers feel that the space for the pictures should be devoted to more reviews. It was reviews they paid for. *CP* is convinced (without adequate evidence!) that the great majority of its readers like the pictures and are often seduced into reading the reviews because their attention has been caught by the pictures—and the titles, and the aphorisms, and the general atmosphere that work is play, which *CP* tries so hard to create. *CP* wishes to be read, and what use is a review without being read, even if it is true?

So look at it this way. In 1956 *CP* printed 45 pictures of 55 authors (some pictures were of authors grouped), and the space for these pictures adds up to 6 pages. It also printed 230 reviews in 218 pages (quite a lot of other material besides reviews) and that is .95 pages per review. So the pictures kept out 6 reviews (or else kept the other reviews from being longer).

How many reviews were read during the year? Here some guessing is necessary. Suppose there are two readers for every subscription of *CP* (there must be more surely), and suppose the average reader reads one review in ten. That makes about 230,000 reviews read during the year—23 reviews per reader, 1000 readers per review. *CP*, already known for its love of exhibitionism, thinks these figures an understatement, but no matter. We are after a comparison and you can cut the figures as you think best.

Now take out the 6 pages of author-pictures and put in the 6 reviews for

which the pictures make room. More meat and fewer garlands. Let us pretend that this loss in adornment cuts the seduction ratio from 1/10 to 1/11. What does this change do to the reading? It cuts the reviews read to 214,545, a loss of 15,455 read reviews, in spite of the 6 new ones. Is that clear? It just could be true that *CP*'s extravagance with space has a cash value in terms of total intellection per annum. Anyhow that is the way to think about it. Lipstick is not ipso facto silly.

ONE of *CP*'s wise friends, a past president of the American Psychological Association, wrote in to say, why didn't *CP* start off each month with a good review of an important book, so as to end up the year with having christened twelve psychological books-of-the-month. If one month had two top-notchers, *CP* could hold one of the two over, he counseled. Well, that is just what *CP* intended to do when in 1955 it thought about 1956, but it ended up 1956 with only eight books-of-the-month, two articles, and two issues without either. Why? *CP* did not see twelve outstanding books for 1956. What did it miss? What potentially outstanding boom did it relegate to post-primary position? Will some reader say? And, while he is saying that, he might also say whether he approves of the eight books *CP* did try to glorify.

SOME of the fundamental problems of psychology are as old as recorded thought, and at Cornell Robert MacLeod has been discussing their historical development and persistence down the ages from Democritos to Nowadays—problems like the psychological basis of knowledge and also of conduct. He says that kind of teaching is fun and that the students think so too. It's a way of seeing unity in variety and that, of course, is a principle fundamental to esthetic value. McGraw-Hill, the avid midwife for so many of the psychologists' progeny, has been told that, if it will keep looking in at the delivery room regularly for the next two or three years, it ought ultimately to find its arms full of an unusual textbook, something to make thoughtful undergraduates keep thinking.

—E.G.B.

Psychotherapy Strives for Clarity

Frieda Fromm-Reichmann and **J. L. Moreno** (Eds.)

Progress in Psychotherapy. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1956. Pp. xii + 352. \$8.50.

Reviewed by ROBERT C. CHALLMAN

who is a clinical psychologist in private practice in Minneapolis. Originally at the University of Minnesota and at Stanford, he has had since through more than two decades a history of holding responsible positions in counseling and clinical psychology at Columbia, the Norwich State Hospital, the Winter V. A. Hospital, and the Menninger Clinic. He has been an examiner for the American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, and a member of the Committee on Training in Clinical Psychology of the American Psychological Association.

PSYCHOTHERAPY is in a state of disarray, almost exactly as it was two hundred years ago. The difference between today and two hundred years ago seems to be merely this: two hundred years ago we did a lot of things without knowing what we were doing; today we do things and keep screaming from the house-tops that each of us knows exactly what he is doing, and that the other does not." Thus speaks Gregory Zilboorg, one of the contributors to this volume.

Whether or not Zilboorg is actually correct in this semi-jocular analysis, *Progress in Psychotherapy* does not bear him out. Fromm-Reichmann makes a plausible case for increasing sophistication and understanding of the art and (to some degree) the science of psychotherapy since "Pinel laid down the first foundation of a systematic psychological therapy of mental disorders" shortly before the beginning of the nineteenth century. One also finds in this volume a relative freedom from a know-it-all attitude and that little attention is being devoted to uncovering the supposed errors and blind spots in the psychotherapeutic systems competing with the sys-

tem upheld by the specific contributor. In fact, a reader may be strangely reminded of Isaiah's hopeful prediction that "the wolf also shall dwell with the lamb, and the leopard shall lie down with the kid."

The book itself is based on a symposium held at the 1955 meeting of the American Psychiatric Association. Together with some supplementary articles, it is the written record of the first program offered by the newly constituted Section on Psychotherapy. Its aims, according to its editors, are (1) to serve as a "source of orientation and information" for "our colleagues" (presumably fellow psychiatrists), (2) to "further constructive scientific interchange among the representatives of the many existing psychotherapeutic schools", and (3) to "stand as a token for the continued efforts of the Section on Psychotherapy to offer a platform for unprejudiced... presentation and comparison of data by representatives of all schools of psychotherapeutic thinking."

As might well be expected, the authors are almost all psychiatrists. One psychologist (Carl Rogers) describes his own system of psychotherapy, two psychologists (Lewis Yablonsky and James M. Enneis) collaborate in writing about psychodrama, and one psychologist (Fromm) has his system described jointly with that of Sullivan in a chapter written by a psychiatrist. For the most part, the contributors constitute a group of eminent psychotherapists whose writings are well known.

NEARLY half the book is devoted to a section entitled *Schools of Psychotherapy*. Here expositions are presented by proponents of the points of view of Adler, Jung, Meyer, Sullivan and Fromm, Stekel, Horney, Rogers, and of the Existential school. These are in general competently done in view of the small space presumably allotted to each. The average length of these chapters is only about eight pages, and *Existential Analysis and Psychotherapy*, probably the least known of the systems, is represented by a reprint only four and one-half pages long. Consequently the reader encounters such sentences as: "The new understanding of man, which we owe to Heidegger's analysis of existence, has

its basis in the new conception that man is no longer understood in terms of some theory—be it a mechanistic, a biologic or a psychological one—but in terms of a purely phenomenologic elucidation of the total structure or total articulation of existence as BEING-IN-THE-WORLD (*Inner-Welt-sein*). What this expression, fundamental for existential analysis, means I unfortunately cannot develop here." If the meaning of this expression is really "fundamental," it is unfortunate that a greater degree of clarity could not be given it.

It is puzzling that certain psychotherapeutic points of view are omitted without explanation by the editors. It can easily be conjectured that the classical Freudian position, except in the setting of group psychotherapy, was omitted on the ground that it was too well known. It is less easy to understand why Rank is not represented. Other points of view that might have been added are those of Kardiner and "Gestalt Therapy". And Alexander, though one of the discussants, is not given space to describe his own position.

In the same section, under the heading of *Schools*, are found a miscellaneous assortment of chapters ranging from techniques on the fringe of systems like psychodrama through techniques like hypnotherapy and multiple therapy to considerations of the problems of psychotherapy with schizophrenics and psychotic children. On the other hand, it is fortunate that the looseness of organization permitted the inclusion of so original a chapter as that of Don D. Jackson who writes on *Countertransference and Psychotherapy*.

Part IV, entitled *Present Psychotherapeutic Developments in European and South American Countries*, makes up about one-fifth of the book. These chapters should serve as an orientation as to where to go and what to expect for one who is planning a tour of the centers of psychotherapy in the countries covered; but, if one is not planning such a trip, there is little need for such a guidebook.

THE most worthwhile chapters of the book, in this reviewer's opinion, are those by John C. Whitehorn on *Understanding Psychotherapy*, by Paul H. Hoch on the *Aims and Limitation of*

Psychotherapy, and by Lawrence S. Kubie on *Some Unsolved Problems of Psychoanalytic Psychotherapy*.

Whitehorn very persuasively clears up some misunderstandings about psychotherapy found among patients and at least one misconception prevalent among psychotherapists, i.e., that a childhood event constitutes the psychic cause of mental illness. Hoch's chapter, together with the discussion by Franz Alexander, presents a great deal of pertinent material on problems inherent in the evaluation of different psychotherapeutic methods. Although much of it traverses familiar ground, it is a competent appraisal and contains some original ideas.

Kubie begins his chapter by saying, "It is discontent which drives me in my approach to this problem. Only a few years ago (although it seems a long time in my life as a psychoanalyst) I harbored the comforting expectation that increasing analytic sophistication and experience would yield a higher percentage of therapeutic successes, a more precise understanding of how successes are achieved, and also how and why we may fail with patients with whom we had expected to succeed. My reluctant impression is that this hope has not been realized." This statement introduces a masterly survey of the practical and theoretical problems that must be solved before it is possible to make objective studies of psychotherapeutic results and of the problems involved in studying the therapeutic process itself. Kubie's plea for patient, coordinated, multi-disciplinary work in special institutes is one which psychologists can heartily endorse.

Does the book live up to its announced purposes? It has provided a "source of orientation and information." Whether it has "furthered constructive and scientific interchange" cannot yet be judged. It certainly has not provided a "comparison of data" in the sense that psychologists use the word *data*. Except in Rogers' excellent chapter, there are only scattering references to objective researches. It is well worth reading, however, for the many fresh views of old problems and stimulating discussions of new ideas. And despite the spate of books on psychotherapy during the last five years, it cannot be considered too duplicative.

To skeptics who agree with Zilboorg's statement at the beginning of this review

and doubt that psychotherapy has made any progress in the last century or two, let me again quote Zilboorg. "Our good old Dr. Heinroth, about one hundred and forty years ago, claimed he cured his patients in a rather simple manner. He would walk them in the garden of his hospital and at high noon, while everything seemed quiet and serene, a cannon concealed in a bush would go off; the patients, terrified would scatter. This method was supposed to contribute to their recovery. Some patients were cured by means of 'nearly drowning.' Some died of course."

Linguists Speak of Speech

Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle

Fundamentals of Language.

(Janua Linguarum, Studia Memoriae Nicolai van Wijk dedicata, No. 1.) The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1956. Pp. 87.

Reviewed by ERIC H. LENNEBERG

who is Russell Sage Post-doctoral Fellow in Harvard University's Division of Medical Sciences and works at the Language Clinic of the Massachusetts General Hospital. He is interested in social psychology, linguistics, and concept formation.

Two independent essays comprise this book which was written by and for linguists but is of some interest to psychologists concerned with language and communication. The first essay deals with the study and description of speech sounds, the second is a linguist's review and discussion of aphasic symptoms. Both are written in condensed and technical style and presuppose acquaintance with the authors' earlier writings (1, 2, 3), as well as some general knowledge of linguistics.

When linguists concern themselves with the sound systems of specific languages, they are primarily interested in distributional and configurational phenomena. Although they always list in their descriptions the sound categories (phonemes) that occur in a language, they do not, as a rule, try to specify the

sounds in terms of universal characteristics. Thus, in the past, there has been little interest in comparing the physical aspects of individual phonemes of one language with those of other languages, perhaps because of an implicit belief that every language has its own unique sounds, rendering cross-language comparisons futile.

Jakobson and Halle propose the description of phonemes in terms of universal characteristics of speech sounds as such. They believe, and very reasonably so, that there are only a small number of variables in the process of phonation, each variable corresponding to some articulatory mechanism. They list twelve basic variables of speech sounds, which they call distinctive features and whose articulatory and acoustic correlates they described. Psychologists interested in phonemic theory will also find here a concise survey of other linguistic schools that treat this same subject, as well as the authors' position vis-à-vis the more traditional approaches.

Research possibilities present themselves throughout, for there are many unconventionally stimulating ideas that deserve to be investigated further. For instance, Jakobson and Halle discuss the acquisition of speech sounds as governed by "laws of implication." The thesis here is that articulatory distinctions or contrasts appear according to a fixed developmental schedule. The first and most primitive distinction is that between consonant and vowel, which usually appears in the form of a phoneme *p* and a phoneme *a*. Of course, it is realized that at the earlier stages speech sounds have considerable random variation still. Once the first phonemic distinction is consistently made, it is followed by others. Further and finer contrasts develop, each such contrast presupposing the acquisition of a more fundamental contrast. For instance, the primitive vowel phoneme is soon differentiated into two phonemes, a narrow vowel vs. a wide vowel (examples are *i* vs. *a*); and, after this distinction is established, both the narrow and the wide vowel will each be differentiated further into narrow palatal (e.g., the vowel in the word *bit*) vs. narrow velar (as in *cool*); and wide palatal (as in *bat*) vs. wide velar (as in *calm*). The authors base their theory on observations made by linguists on individual cases,

but apparently verification by means of statistical investigations of a representative sample of speech-developmental histories is still a desideratum.

The second essay, entitled *Two Aspects of Language and Two Types of Aphasie Disturbances*, is authored by Jakobson alone. He deplores the lack of cooperation between linguists and medical men in their efforts to study speech disturbances, and he expresses the belief that a linguistic analysis of aphasie symptoms is essential for an appropriate evaluation of this type of disorder. Language is constituted by two fundamental processes, he points out: selection and combination. With respect to the first, he says: "A selection between alternatives implies the possibility of substituting one for another, equivalent to the former in one respect and different from it in another. Actually, selection and substitution are two faces of the same operation." This conception of selection leads him to hold that the person who selects has to be able to see similarities before he can make appropriate substitutions.

Jakobson believes that there is one type of aphasie in which the capacity to select and to equate is impaired and that this will result in an inability to speak *about* language as well as to name things. Metaphors disappear from these patients' utterances while marked increase in metonymic forms of speech may be noted. In other types of aphasie the process of selection may be intact but the power of combination is impaired. In the process of combination individual signs are wrought into a "superior unit," the context. When there is dysfunction in the process of combination, a condition known as *agrammatism* will result in which the rules of grammar will be insulted in one way or another. Usually a characteristic telegraphic style may be observed: not only will the *but*s and *if*s be dropped, but speech is also prone to degenerate further into infantile or baby language until finally only incoherent words are uttered; no phrases or sentences can be produced any more, except for a few stereotypes often of an emotional nature. Patients thus afflicted may use metaphors but no metonyms.

The clinical application of this discussion of aphasie cannot be evaluated competently by the reviewer. A great deal

of thought has gone into this as well as into the other essay. They will not fail to stimulate the reader.

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Craving for Love: A Syndrome

Charles Odier

Anxiety and Magic Thinking.
(Trans. from the French by Marie-Louise Schoelly and Mary Jane Sherfey.) New York: International Universities Press, 1956. Pp. xii + 302. \$5.00.

Reviewed by KATHERINE M. WOLF

who is Associate Professor of Psychology in the Child Study Center and the Department of Psychology at Yale University. She is a Viennese who once worked there under Karl and Charlotte Bühler. She has had extensive acquaintance with psychoanalysis and psychoanalysts, and she has spent two years in intellectual contact with Piaget in Geneva. She has been in the field of child development all her professional life, keeps hunting for concepts for a theory of development that can be evidenced by the observation of behavior.

A MARRIED woman, unhappy because of her husband's lack of attention and affection, dreams: 'I am desperately clinging to a rock during a difficult and dangerous bit of mountain climbing. My husband is ahead of me . . . but he goes on climbing without paying any attention to me in spite of my calls (abandonment). I can neither climb nor descend. Suspended over the abyss, terrified, I cry, "Julius, Julius!" but he does not answer.' And she adds in a

furious tone of voice: 'It was awful. . . . You see how this husband of mine is. He is simply criminal. His only desire is to see me dead.'

This confusion between psychic happenings and objective events presents the main theme of Odier's book. He calls it *magic thinking, psychic realism* (Piaget), *adualism* (Baldwin), or by his own word *externalism*. He demonstrates that the human mind regresses to this form of functioning, alien to its usual adult mode, whenever anxiety surpasses tolerable limits. This regressive functioning occurs in dreams and neuroses. Neuroses are characterized by the psyche's functioning on different levels, of which the mental laws are irreconcilable.

Apart from phobias in which patients seek and find objects in reality which justify their fears, psychic externalism manifests itself most clearly in the *neurosis of abandonment*. These patients do not show so much intellectual externalism (confusion between psychic phenomena and objects in reality) or moral externalism (moral standards derived from reward and punishment only) as emotional externalism. Out of basic insecurity they get their sense of self-value, of well-being, of living, only through another person's demonstration of love. This state of dependence makes abandonment the fundamental ever-haunting danger. As no human partner can give constant reassurance, such patients produce that disaster which they dread the most, creating for themselves a series of the deepest tragedies, interrupted only by transitory happy moments of feeling loved. Death which unites without separating becomes thus the theme of their dreams. Odier sees this tragic affliction as the most frequent affliction of our time.

The description of these patients rings a familiar note. Odier's clinical pictures are vivid, convincing, and occasionally stirring (see his interpretation of the Orestes myth, pp. 283ff.). Nevertheless the book remained disappointing for this reviewer. Methodologically and conceptually it attempts a synthesis between Piaget's theory and psychoanalysis. The success of such a synthesis depends on the demonstration that it leads to a richer set of propositions which would lend themselves to verification. This consequence does not seem to follow here.

The replacement of such analytic

concepts as *primary process, displacement*, and *projection* by *externalism* deprives the theory of phobias of its dynamic hypotheses without providing propositions of Ego psychology that permit predictive or even correlational statements. The same deficiency applies to the description of the neurosis of abandonment which avoids the traditional analytical concepts (danger of loss of the love object, orality, anaclitic relationship). In eliminating these concepts Odier overlooks the challenging parallels between his syndrome and the clinical pictures described by other analysts, for example, by Abraham, Jacobson, and Lewin.

The fundamental disappointment which Odier's book creates may stem from his non-genetic way of thinking. In psychoanalysis not only does he neglect the whole complex of theory connected with Freud's topographical point of view, but also he sees analysis almost uniquely as the theory of oedipal conflict and its solution, ignoring all pre-genital development in its conceptual implications. Recognizing Piaget's concept of realism, he pays but little attention to Piaget's most important discovery, the discovery of the lawful sequence of various qualitatively distinct stages which lead from the infantile to the adult mode of functioning.

The ontogenetic model of psychoanalysis, as well as the genetic model of Piaget, introduce into psychological thinking a describable and verifiable typology. Their use leads to testable propositions. The neglect of the stage-idea replaces this typology by a dichotomy (successful oedipal solution—failure of adequate oedipal solution; adult functioning—infantile functioning). As the poles of this dichotomy are rarely found, or rarely demonstrable, we are left with a continuum in which quantification provides the only test for verifying or falsifying propositions; yet this quantification meets severe conceptual obstacles. Even if one uses nonparametric statistics, the definition of an adequate cutting point appears to be almost impossible. The same limitation applies to Odier's concept of insecurity with which he replaces the psychoanalytic concept of danger, a concept accessible to a typological definition.

The search for behavioral correlates

corresponding to the constructs of psychoanalytic theory appears as one of the most important tasks of modern psychology. It is regrettable that Odier's attempt has failed. It shows, however, clearly one reason for such failure. The synthesis of two theories must satisfy one minimal test—it must lead to more and better predictions than the two theories provide separately.

Do Leaders Really Lead?

Donald T. Campbell

Leadership and Its Effects on the Group.

(Ohio Studies, in Personnel, Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 83). Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, 1956. Pp. xi + 92. \$2.00.

Ralph M. Stogdill, Carroll L. Shartle, Ellis S. Scott, Alvin E. Coons, and William E. Jaynes.

A Predictive Study of Administrative Work Patterns.

(Monograph No. 85). Pp. xi + 68. \$2.00.

John K. Hemphill

Group Dimensions: A Manual for Their Measurement.

(Monograph No. 87). Pp. xi + 66.

Reviewed by WILLIAM McGEEHEE

who is Director of Personnel Research and Training in Fieldcrest Mills in Spry, North Carolina. He is interested in all kinds of problems in industrial leadership, training and selection, and recently reviewed in CP Härnqvist's Adjustment, Leadership and Group Relations.

Two of these three monographs report bold attempts to study the social behavior of human beings in a natural-life situation. The third by Hemphill is an attempt to standardize a method for measuring social situations *in situ*. All three are products of the research program conducted during the last ten years

by the Personnel Research Board of the Ohio State University.

Each has the stamp of this organization deeply imprinted on it. They are factual and concise. The experimental design, the measuring instruments and the subjects used are fully described. Nor are the limitations of the research procedure and the administrative problems involved in conducting research in social behavior shirked. The statistical treatment of data is frequent but the reader is not "be-thump'd with words." The style of writing is not inspired, but the brevity of each monograph mitigates boredom. In fact, the style is so uniform from monograph to monograph that, without referring to the title page, it would be difficult to tell which author wrote which monograph.

Campbell has attempted in his study of social groups, represented by the crews of ten submarines, to test the hypothesis that group effectiveness is a function of the behavior of the groups' leaders. He has some evidence that this is true. The evidence admittedly is tentative due to the small number of groups and their non-comparability. The tentative nature of these conclusions must be stressed, however, for certain of his measures of group effectiveness and leadership behavior are low in reliability and questionable as to pertinence.

The opening chapter of Campbell's monograph is an excellent statement of the theoretical position of the Personnel Research Board in the investigation of leadership and contains succinct descriptions of appropriate experimental designs and apt comments on their technical and administrative deficiencies.

Stogdill and his associates offer some evidence that, in predicting what an individual will do in a new administrative assignment, information is needed not only concerning his administrative behavior in his present assignment, but also in regard to the administrative behavior of the man whom he succeeds. There is evidence also that neither the social scientist nor naval administrators do an outstanding job in predicting the future patterns of administrative behavior of naval officers assigned to new billets. These predictions were made 'blind' from records accumulated in the course of the investigation. There is no evidence, however, as to whether the inadequate predictions are

a function of the inadequate records or of the inadequate interpretation made of the records by the persons making the predictions. There is evidence, however, of definite differences in the accuracy of predictions from different predictors.

These investigators had developed a superior experimental design for this study. Unfortunately events unyielding to the aspiration of social scientists modified the design in a drastic manner. The beginning of the Korean War and the requirements of the Navy for personnel resulted in a different and smaller population for the study than was originally planned. The authors accordingly remain cautious in making any claim to a wide validity for their results. In fact, they present the data primarily as a description of method with the hope that some future social scientist can use it without the same administrative misfortunes.

THE monograph of Hemphill is concerned with the validation and standardization of an instrument designed to measure thirteen dimensions of group behavior. He presents evidence that this instrument does indeed differentiate between the groups used, groups which were, however, much closer to the typical sophomore used in many psychological investigations than to groups found in more rugged situations such as industrial and military establishments. The general utility of this instrument then must still be demonstrated by the applications to groups dissimilar to those used by Hemphill.

Certain of the instruments used in the first two monographs were developed as techniques of measuring leadership behavior by securing (1) statements from 'leaders' as to how they exercised leadership and (2) statements from peers and subordinates as to how the 'leader' exercised leadership. Usually discrepancies are found between the reports from these two sources. Certainly the perception of leadership per leader cannot be expected to show perfect correlation with the perception of leadership per follower. The discrepancies reported, particularly in Campbell's study, are great enough, however, to raise the question as to what a leader *really* does and what effect his behavior *really* has on his group. The instruments devised at Ohio State Univer-

sity are inadequate to answer this question.

The necessity for this sort of an investigation of leadership is pointed up by a facetiously serious report in *The Atlantic Monthly* (August 1952) of a survey of executives. This report indicates that 86 per cent of a group of executives earning \$12,000 a year or more were "not quite bright." What was more amazing was that the American economy seemed indifferent to the mistakes of the 9,000 unbright executives studied. Further, it seemed that some natural forces operated to protect the economy from these men whose "executive decisions were (a) right for the wrong reason, (b) wrong for the right reason." Proof or disproof of reported research of this type will require more powerful instruments and techniques than those used by Shartle and his associates. It is hoped, however, that the same ingenuity and courage which took this group out of the laboratory and into the street to study leadership will be directed toward the problem of what a leader actually does and what influence his behavior actually has on the group.

Thinking About Thinking

David H. Russell

Children's Thinking. Boston: Ginn, 1956. Pp. xii + 449. \$5.50.

Reviewed by GEORGE MANDLER

who is a Lecturer in Clinical Psychology at Harvard University. He thinks of himself as a 'general practitioner,' for he is concerned not only with the training of students in clinical psychology and the psychology of personality, but also with research on learning and on anxiety. In addition he is working on a MS about certain methodological matters.

AFTER thirty-odd years of uncomfortable acquiescence in Watsonian dicta, psychologists have broken loose in a rash of investigations of and re-introductions to the problem of thinking. *Children's Thinking* continues the re-orientation which is manifested in our current journals and by such authors as Humphrey, Vinacke, Johnson, and Bruner. In the absence of a distinct delineation

of the area of 'thinking,' any attempt toward definitive coverage becomes a labor of love which must move from philosophical notions about the cognitive processes to the psychology of sensation and perception, and from simple problem-solving behavior to creative thinking and critical judgment. The present volume not only achieves this vast coverage, but also attempts to integrate research findings with practical problem-situations. As a summary of this heterogeneous area it fulfills a definite need, and, except for some unfortunate omissions, *Children's Thinking* is a valuable survey of related problems of knowledge brought under a single heading.

THE book distinguishes two main aspects of thinking behavior—its materials and its processes. The former topic permits the author to discuss percepts, images, memories, concepts, emotions, and attitudes, while the latter deals with associative thinking, problem solving, concept formation, and critical and creative thinking. A final section contains an excellent discussion of the relation between the adequacy of thinking processes and their possible improvement by educative means.

The major improvement of this volume over previous attempts to present the area of development of thinking is its empirical approach. Over a thousand research findings have been incorporated in the text, and, while some of the generalizations to practical situations are naive, it is a pleasure to see these findings brought together without unsubstantiated and confusing theorizing. The author does, on the other hand, avoid theoretical problems to an extent that makes it difficult for the reader to form a cohesive picture of the findings summarized in the book. The author's framework is primarily descriptive and he does not attempt to distinguish among various aspects of the thinking process from a unitary point of view. Except for some passing references and a critique of the early forms of S-R theories, he sidetracks the theoretical issues. His avoidance of such topics also results in a neglect of the relation between thought and language. Similarly, he makes no concerted attempt to distinguish between various referents of the thinking concept,

e.g., as it applies to constructs used to account for non-observable mediating processes, and as it applies to the taxonomy of introspective reports.

SOME serious omissions should be briefly mentioned. Except for passing references, Russell largely ignores psychoanalytic investigations, and the discussion of emotional factors suffers from this omission. A more serious shortcoming is the discussion of Piaget's work. While the author aims at a more adequate coverage of these investigations than has previously been available in the American literature, he omits the more recent and probably the more important contributions on mental development which have come from Piaget's laboratory. Thus Piaget's developmental hypotheses are briefly dismissed in an introductory chapter. Finally, the author makes no use of the recent literature on transposition behavior, and his very short section on projective techniques is inadequate.

He has, nevertheless, achieved his goal to make the book "both scientific and readable." His frequent use of anecdotal and other illustrative material will help the student in assimilating the mass of material presented. The book should be useful for an advanced undergraduate course in child development for it takes up much material necessarily neglected in the current child psychology texts. For the graduate student, both in psychology and in education, it presents a stimulating summary of findings which point glaringly to the large lacunae in this particular area. *Children's Thinking* should be particularly useful to the future teacher in assessing the core of hard facts about children's cognitive behavior.

One wishes, however, that the author had posed some theoretical questions, for, as he says, "eventually the *what* turns into *why*; and it is probably these later questions which are of most value in building concepts." The psychology of thinking should be ready to pose some *why* questions.



A mathematical truth is neither simple nor complicated in itself, it is.

—EMILE LEMOINE

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Always the Culture is There

Geogene Seward

Psychotherapy and Culture

Conflict. (With Case Studies by Judd Marmor.) New York: Ronald Press, 1956. Pp. ix + 299. \$6.00.

Reviewed by DANIEL R. MILLER

who is Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan and was recently a Fellow at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences. He is interested in personality theory and projective tests, but his main concern at present is the direction of research in cooperation with a colleague in sociology, research on the relation of social position to child-rearing practices, and on the resolution of inner conflicts raised by moral standards and ego defense. He is a co-progenitor of two books and one monograph, all now in gestation.

ANYONE who has worked for a time in a psychiatric ward or clinic can cite instances of serious errors in diagnosis and therapy which occurred because the clinician applied the standards which he learned as a white, middle-class, Protestant to members of special minorities. "Unless an individual is viewed within his own frame of reference," says Dr. Seward, "his behavior cannot be accurately assessed with regard to its normality or abnormality. This implies a degree of cultural sophistication possessed by relatively few . . . professionals." To ameliorate this situation, she has written a book for clinicians on the psychology of minority groups.

In an introductory section, she summarizes the theories of Freud, Adler, Horney, Fromm, Sullivan, and Kardiner. While she concedes that Freud did not neglect social forces, she takes him to task for the vagueness of his concepts of *instinct* and *libido*, and his assumption that paternal dominance within the family is universal. She is much more enthusiastic about the neo-Freudians because of their cultural relativism but thinks that their "Caucasian, middle-class perspective" has blinded them to the "smaller subcultural segments of

their society." In her opinion, among the neo-Freudians, only Kardiner avoids this error.

Most of this book is devoted to the 'psychodynamics' of American groups who provide special problems in therapy: members of different social classes, Southern Italians, Nisei, Negroes, women, American Indians, and Jews. In each section, Dr. Seward identifies the group, describes patterns of child-rearing and characteristic personality structures, gives accounts of typical conflicts, and then summarizes special therapeutic problems. Four of the sections are followed by case studies contributed by Dr. Judd Marmor, a psychiatrist.

Considering the author's laudable purpose and the obvious care with which she has prepared this volume, I would be very happy at this point if I could recommend it as required reading for all psychotherapists. But this is not possible. The book simply does not accomplish its purpose.

There are three primary problems. The author does not apply the information about cultural differences to a sufficient number of therapeutic problems to help the clinician; she cites a considerable amount of dubious material without discussing its questionable validity; and her cultural relativism is so extreme as to neglect some very important sources of behavioral variation. I shall consider each of these difficulties in turn.

Discussions of special therapeutic problems, ostensibly the primary topic of the book, are either very scanty or confined to illustrations which demonstrate that the psychotherapist should try to be sensitive to the patient's ethnic background. In addition, the author seldom mentions such concepts as defense mechanisms and moral standards, which are conventionally considered in analyses of personality dynamics.

Of the many questionable sources of evidence let me note two representative examples. To demonstrate how "bizarre from the perspective of our culture" are the pathologies of other cultures, Dr. Seward describes the "Wihtigo" psychosis of the Ojibwas. She does not take cognizance of the fact that some ethnologists question all claims of unique pathologies in other cultures because the

field workers have not been psychiatrically trained and have relied on informers' reports rather than case histories. She accepts Rorschach findings concerning differences between American and Chinese-born students in "role inconstancy" and "rebellion against authority" without questioning the validity of the diagnostic signs for these variables or considering the fact that the same response to a projective test may have different meanings when given by subjects from different ethnic backgrounds.

Dr. Seward has obviously been conscientious in culling the literature of a very new field, and she has written a clear and concise summary. In her attempts to document principles with evidence she has been handicapped by the paucity of studies, particularly ones with methodological sophistication. I suspect that if she were more critical, she might have found little to report.

It is probably because of this paucity of empirical data that some sections give less a picture of a particular minority than of the interests of investigators who have studied that minority. For example, most of the studies of Negroes cited by Dr. Seward concentrate on their pathology. They demonstrate that Negroes have much pent-up aggression, are masochistic, have a high rate of psychosis, and the like. Positive assets have apparently not been investigated. It would indeed be unfortunate if any clinician were to approach his Negro patients primarily in terms of the evidence provided in this publication.

So extreme is Dr. Seward's cultural relativism that she rejects theories which attempt to account for some of the differences in the personalities of men and women in terms of their biological structures. In her opinion, it is primarily the attitudes to these structural characteristics which count. More important, however, is a potential trap which, I believe, extreme cultural relativism creates for the psychologist. Dr. Seward seems to advocate the necessity for a different approach to the psychopathology of each group studied. Yet if we are to talk in terms of the pathologies of other cultures or to compare the pathologies of different cultures, we must have fixed points of reference in terms of which we can analyze our subjects. Dr. Seward's own use of such terms as *defenses*, *dependency*

needs, and *castration anxiety* to describe people in different minority groups suggests that she cannot avoid the need for some generalized theory of psychopathology, whatever the variability among cultural groups.

Although the author does not accomplish her stated end, nevertheless she does offer the reader a fairly complete and valuable compendium of available studies on special groups. This literature should alert the therapist to the importance of cultural forces. It should also interest the general psychologist who seeks a review of the current status of research on special groups.

What Pierre Janet Thought

Leonard Schwartz

Les névroses et la psychologie dynamique de Pierre Janet.
(Trans. from the German by Mme. L. E. Thomas.) Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1955. Pp. xxiv + 356. 1200 fr.

Reviewed by BRENDAN A. MAHER

who is a British subject who came to America to study and then stayed on, at present as Assistant Professor of Psychology at Northwestern University. He is interested in both penological and physiological psychology and, in general, in personality theory. He is also anxious to promote tongues across the sea in psychology and gets his chance here to tell the busy Americans a little about Janet.

WHEN Janet died in 1947 he bequeathed his library to the author of this book. Dr. Schwartz, a Swiss neurologist and Janet's colleague for several years, had made many efforts to bring Janet's theories to the notice of a wider audience. The death of Schwartz in 1948 brought these labors to an end, but not before he had completed what is the only published summary of Janet's general theory of behavior between the covers of one book. The present edition is translated from the German by Mme. L. E. Thomas.

It is probably true to say that the contributions of Janet to psychology

have been largely overlooked or dismissed by the present generation of American psychologists. This may be because much of his work is untranslated, especially that considerable part of it which is scattered throughout the pages of European journals. Perhaps it is also due to Janet's dispassionate attitude toward his own theories, an attitude which commands the respect of the scientist without creating apostles. Whatever the reason, Janet is little read by the contemporary psychologist. This book will make it easier for the persistent student to know more about him.

The aims of the author are both simple and clear. They are to provide an account of Janet's theory of personality and of his specific hypotheses regarding the etiology and therapy of the neuroses. A work of this kind could easily become either an unwieldy mass of quotations hung on a thin thread of text or a series of undocumented generalizations. Schwartz has avoided both of these extremes. He has given us a lucid and logical synthesis of Janet's views on genetic psychology, psychological tension, the unconscious and the emotions, as well as his more familiar theories of suggestion and psychic energy. A brief introduction by Janet confirms the accuracy of Schwartz's presentation and adds a résumé of his own position toward the close of his career.

What will an American reader get from this discussion? He will almost certainly find many things that will disappoint him. Trained in a scientific philosophy of positivism, operationalism and, more recently, mathematical models, he may become impatient with analogies that jump from hydrodynamics to economics with apparent unconcern and produce no testable hypotheses from either position. The therapist seeking a clear rationale for his own activities will be disappointed in a therapy that turns out to be mainly a regimen of fresh air, good food, and suitable occupation. The genetic psychologist may be stimulated by the single chapter on *The Evolution of Psychological Functions* but he will look in vain for data or references to the literature later than J. M. Baldwin, Royce, and McDougall.

On the other hand, there are reasons why Schwartz may be read with profit. The revolt from introspectionism owes

more to Janet, in Europe at least, than may be commonly suspected. In 1919 Janet was already convinced that "psychology ought to be nothing but the science of behavior" and was commenting that "every discriminable psychological event is also a discriminable response." His behaviorism was prior to and more extensive than Watson's, dealing, as it did, with cognitive functions in a more sophisticated manner. He earned the disapproval of Freud by stating that for him the term *unconscious* was a suitable metaphor rather than an implied entity. Thus the present-day personality theorist might find the chapter on unconscious behavior more acceptable than he would suppose.

All in all the reader will find nothing new in the theories which Schwartz outlines, but he may be surprised to find that there is so much of them which is not old. He will also make the acquaintance of a point of view with which he is probably unfamiliar, one that exerts an influence upon European psychology that can not well be ignored.

Cases Without Theory

Henry Weinberg and A. William Hare

Casebook in Abnormal Psychology. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1956. Pp. 320. \$4.00.

Reviewed by MAX L. HUTT

who, as Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan, teaches courses in abnormal psychology, psychotherapy and personality theory. He is going to be half of the authors of a forthcoming book that will probably be called Patterns of Abnormal Psychology.

THIS book contains case studies of twenty individuals with various patterns of abnormal behavior. The types of cases range from behavior problems and mental deficiency to psychoses and organic brain damage, and there is a sampling of problems at all developmental levels from childhood through adulthood. A few of the accounts pay considerable attention to historical

development of abnormal behavior patterns, whereas others are considered almost entirely from the perspective of therapeutic sessions.

The authors present this book primarily as "a heuristic device," hoping that it will be useful to the student in "achieving understanding" "under the guidance of the instructor." Undoubtedly, it will be useful as a teaching aid in courses where case study is stressed. Systematic case studies are needed in many teaching situations, being useful in attaining greater clinical sensitivity and diagnostic understanding, and in considering details of plans and methods of treatment.

UNFORTUNATELY, this volume has several serious limitations. The case studies are very uneven with respect to completeness of data and also evaluative comment. For instance, the length of case presentations varies from only four pages to thirty-eight; some cases, moreover, present abundant therapeutic material with little diagnostic information, whereas others show the reverse difference. Still more serious is the lack of any systematic outline for case presentation, with the result that large gaps in information are occasionally evident. Sometimes the patient's reactions and verbalizations during therapy are reported, but the failure to provide a hint of the therapist's intentions, goals, strategy, or behavior robs the data of much of their salience.

This reviewer also regrets the unwillingness of the authors to take a stance on theory. They state that they believe the data are understandable without such an orientation, leaving the student or his instructor to supply or develop theoretical models. Certainly there are times when the explicit or implicit theory of personality held by the investigator influences his findings to a significant degree. Then, it becomes difficult to evaluate the 'data' without knowledge of the clinical orientation. Especially do we need knowledge of the investigator's basic theory when he undertakes the differential presentation of several types of cases, for then the difficulties in studying the case materials are compounded.

*

Knuckling Under

Joost A. M. Meerloo

The Rape of the Mind: The Psychology of Thought Control, Menticide, and Brain-washing. Cleveland: World Publishing Co., 1956. Pp. 320. \$5.00.

Reviewed by EDGAR H. SCHEIN

who is a social psychologist and Assistant Professor of Psychology at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He interviewed repatriated American prisoners of war in Korea. Since then he has remained interested in 'brainwashing,' and has published various papers about it. He is thinking now about editing a book on the history and current varieties of thought control.

CAN democratic institutions unwittingly lay the foundation for a totalitarian government? Meerloo says yes and tells how in a book which is essentially a polemic, though it purports to be a scientific discussion directed to the educated layman.

Meerloo's argument pivots on the concept of *menticide*, his word for the destruction of the mind which permits the totalitarian to transform it into an "automatically responding machine." Basing his conclusions on observations and interview data obtained from victims of Nazi and Communist domination, he concludes that the external pressures brought to bear in menticide are virtually impossible to resist. This is particularly so because man's own unconscious dependency needs and repressed hostilities make him want to surrender mentally to his captor. It is less threatening to feel guilt in relation to the act of surrender than to recognize the repressed hostilities which generate it.

The techniques of mental harassment used by the Communists are attributed by Meerloo primarily to Pavlovian psychology, though the arguments supporting this historical connection are not sufficiently documented to be convincing.

In analyzing the act of mental surrender, Meerloo draws freely on the terminology of learning theory, hypnosis, and psychoanalysis, weaving these into a vivid, often highly insightful, but seldom closely reasoned account. Many

of his controversial assertions are poorly documented and must be accepted on faith; for example: "There are unconscious sexual roots in hypnosis, related to the passive yielding to the attacker, which the quack uses to give vent to his own passions." Most of his conclusions he bases on unevaluated psychoanalytic evidence or interview material, and frequently these data are made sensational by the use of emotional language; for example: "Political conditioning should not be confused with training or persuasion or even indoctrination. It is more than that. It is taming. It is taking possession of both the simplest and the most complicated nervous patterns of man. It is the battle for the possession of the nerve cells."

The second and third parts of Meerloo's book present the main portion of his argument: (1) the totalitarian way of thinking is based on unresolved emotional conflicts; (2) any institution in society which fosters mental apathy and withdrawal from personal responsibility lays the groundwork for menticide; (3) many institutions in our society do just this.

The mass media of communication—advertising, public relations, public opinion engineering, propaganda, automation, loyalty investigations, authoritarian child-rearing methods, bureaucratization, the 'cult' of relaxation, the 'cult' of conformity, reliance on drugs as stimulants or tranquilizers, etc.—all have the effect of lulling us into apathy and making us irresponsible robots.

How can we defend ourselves against such influences? Meerloo feels that the most important thing is for us to be made aware of them and to understand their effects; but also, he thinks we must learn to live with ourselves, learn not to rely on others to take responsibility and to entertain us, and we must emphasize those aspects of our society which help us to be mature and so free us from debilitating unconscious conflicts.

These arguments are provocative and worthy of consideration, but arguments should not be confused with facts. What one misses throughout this book is convincing documentation and a sense of historical perspective. Is there more conformity and apathy today than there

was fifty years ago or are we merely more concerned about it? Is there any evidence that highly industrialized societies like our own are more susceptible to the totalitarian appeal than so-called backward societies? Do the mass media represent a threat to the society or do they merely reflect the wishes of the average citizen? Meerloo's failure to deal with questions such as these weakens his otherwise stimulating commentary on contemporary life.

Facts About Character Wanted

Ernest M. Ligon

Dimensions of Character. New York: Macmillan, 1956. Pp. xxix + 497. \$6.50.

Reviewed by HOWARD DAVIS SPOERL

who is Professor of Philosophy at American International College at Springfield, Mass., and Professor of Philosophy and Psychology at the New Church Theological School in Cambridge, Mass. He is also Editor of *The New Christianity, a New Church (Swedenborgian) quarterly*. He used to be Professor of Psychology and Director of Guidance at International College. He says that the orientation produced by his psychological training is probably ineradicable, and this review seems to show it.

PROFESSIONAL interest (as of religious workers) in 'character training' has usually kept aloof from concern with the 'psychology of character.' The fixed objectives of the one pursuit, often tied to theological dogma, have tended to conflict with the unprejudiced empirical analyses undertaken by the other. Yet, if there is an educable entity correctly called *character*, there must be a relationship between the two areas. Before and during his long connection with the Character Research Project at Union College, Dr. Ligon occupied himself with that relationship, and he has sought all along to reduce the conflict.

Unfortunately *Dimensions of Character* is neither a theory of character nor a systematic report on research in the field. The book is a strange, confused mixture

of an advocacy of a scientific approach with an insistence on the necessity of seemingly *ad hoc* values. Badly organized, diffuse, verbose, and repetitious, it was avowedly written "to illustrate how science can be applied to such problems by lay leaders, and with what kind of results." The lay leaders, who are invited to become "co-scientists" and are offered among other things a chapter on the statistical treatment of data, are evidently teachers in church schools and interested parents. If they can manage to read the book through, they are likely to obtain at best a strong impression of the importance of being objective about moral and religious attitudes and about the children in their charge. This is a not unworthy emphasis.

Another emphasis seems to be that persistent failure to perform research operations is unimportant as long as "new insights" are obtained. This is called the *infinity principle*. If factors cannot be controlled, relax the controls; if operational criteria prove hampering, change them. We are told: "The traditional definition of an experiment was, 'Hold all factors constant except one; vary that one systematically, and measure the results.' The modern definition, especially in research like this, might read, 'Measure all the factors you can; vary the educational-method variables systematically, and measure the total results in terms of the interaction among all these variables.'" There is no stinting in the recognition of a multiplicity of factors. There is continual talk of their "measurement," yet scarcely a single lucid presentation of any concrete quantification.

The general activity of the "Project" consists of devising, with the help of numerous "tests" nowhere concisely described, character-stimulating influences mainly in the form of church-school lessons, which are then used "experimentally," with the children sporadically involved through the "co-scientific cooperation" of the miscellaneous teachers and parents. In justice to Dr. Ligon's intentions, it must be admitted that what he studies cannot be set up in the laboratory; it must be dealt with in the field. And the field is all but uncontrollable.

The reviewer has no wish to assert that the Character Research Project has

accomplished nothing. It seems to have shown, and probably to have *proved*, that where there is concerted interest in the development of "character," combined with a broad, intelligent appraisal of constructive rather than merely traditional aims, desired results can be obtained. It is not Dr. Ligon's fault that he has access only to upper middle-class Protestant church people.

But scientific psychology remains starved of its square meal of adequately organized data. And it must be added that the several separate papers issued in 1953 as *Union College Studies in Character Research* are as much of a fizzle as the present book.

A Weak Reed for the Doctor

Harold Michal-Smith

The Mentally Retarded Patient. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1956. Pp. xi + 203. \$4.00.

Reviewed by KARL F. HEISER

who is a consulting psychologist in Glendale, Ohio. He has a long history of interest in mental retardation and the education of handicapped children, having recently been for a few years in charge of clinical services at the Training School in Vineland, New Jersey.

HERE you have 167 short pages of text written by a psychologist for physicians who "want to treat the patient rather than the patient's illness or symptoms." This is a laudable aspiration, but unfortunately the material is poorly organized and presented; it has too many one-sentence paragraphs that do not follow topics in logical sequence; it is exhortatory rather than expository; and the writing is poor. Nor will the discussion of anatomy and neurology impress physicians that the author is qualified to write for them.

Beginning with the first chapter, the author gets entangled in a series of irrelevant opinions without getting down to cases with the doctor's problems and experiences. The discussion of brain impairment, learning, and emotional factors is unnecessarily superficial and

is uncomplimentary to the knowledge of physician-readers. A chapter of classification was written by L. B. Slobody, M.D.; it is a mixture of symptomatology and etiology. Elsewhere in the book classifications based on IQ are given sporadically but not consistently. No order, no unifying theory, and no system is offered.

The author suggests yet another term to replace *feeble-mindedness*, *mental deficiency*, and *mental retardation*. He advocates *cerebral paucity*, a preposterous term. The less IQ, the more cerebral paucity!

The author's views and opinions are progressive in that they show concern for human well-being and the constructive training and use of the abilities of the mentally handicapped. His chapters on family adjustment and vocational problems contain much that will encourage parents who are already acting with humane judgment. The physician-reader, however, may lay the book down with an impatient shrug and turn to Tredgold which will seem to give him substance, or to Sarason (indexed by the author as Sarson) for the psychologist's approach.

What Is a Psychopath?

William McCord and Joan McCord

Psychopathy and Delinquency.
New York: Grune & Stratton, 1956.
Pp. x + 230. \$6.50.

Reviewed by ASHER R. PACHT

who is Deputy Commissioner for Classification of Correction of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. Basically he is a clinical psychologist occupied with the psychology and administration of classification and selection. He learned about correctional work in the State of Wisconsin.

IN the mélange of diagnostic labels with which the present-day clinician is faced, none is more confusing nor more often misused than the label of *psychopath*. To some persons almost anyone who has committed an asocial act more serious than overtime parking seems to

be a psychopath. By others, no one is considered a psychopath. There are almost as many definitions of the psychopath as there are individual perceptions. Semantic substitutions, e.g., *sociopath* for *psychopath*, have only served to compound further the issue. Who is the psychopath? What is the causation of psychopathy? Can the psychopath respond to treatment? How does Society and the Law view the psychopath?

It is on these provocative questions that William and Joan McCord have focused their attentions. Their answers form the basis for the most clearly written exposition on the subject of psychopathy that this reviewer has read. While many individuals (including this reviewer) will find themselves at variance with some of their conclusions, none can deny the thoroughness with which they approached the problem. In their quest for information, the McCords waded through most of the literature that has been written about the 'psychopath.' From a mass of data, which is at best contradictory and at worst practically valueless, they have made a conscientious effort to cull out meaningful concepts. As a result of their objective, analytical endeavors, they successfully achieve one of their stated purposes of the book, i.e., compilation and evaluation of our knowledge about the psychopath.

These authors devote only a brief chapter to the problem of diagnosis, believing that difficulties with definition have been "superficial and overly stressed." In the applied field of corrections, however, the wholesale misuse of the psychopathic label has often precluded any possibility of treatment for the individuals so labeled. It is for this reason that the reviewer considers the development of a rigidly (yet logically) defined "psychopathic syndrome" to be one of the significant contributions of the book.

By synthesizing into a syndrome those personality characteristics which most behavioral scientists agree are applicable to the psychopath, the authors point up the well-known fact that the whole is more than the sum of its parts, even in the case of the psychopathic personality. Unfortunately, it is probably hopeless to expect that all current diagnosticians will change their long-standing habits and base their diagnoses on the aggregate whole rather than on the presence of a part. It is not hopeless, however, to expect that future researchers in the field will make use of the 'syndrome' definition (as the McCords do in their own research) and thus make more meaningful the results of their studies.

Those who expect to find a conclusive formula for the treatment of the adult psychopath will be disappointed. Such a panacea has yet to be formulated. For the child psychopath, the authors offer a glimmer of hope, but even here their optimistic generalizations based on the results of their original research do not appear to be fully warranted. Considered as an exploratory study, their effort is laudable; considered as a major research project, it falls short of the goal. Such defects as the small number of psychopaths involved, the confounding of results by combining diagnostic groups, the statistical handling of the data, are all open to criticism. Even the clarity which pervades the rest of the book is missing in the detailed chapter on the research. It would be unfair, however, to offer these comments without recognizing that the authors have made a real contribution by clearing a much-needed path for others to follow.

This is, then, an excellent book. It merits a place in the library of anyone who has an interest in corrections. It should clarify cloudy thinking, provoke discussion, and stimulate needed research.



In 1953, in one of the great states of the Midwest, mental patients were being fed on a budget of 17 cents a day. . . . The sovereign Empire State of New York spent less per capita to care for its mentally ill than it did to feed and maintain criminals confined to its prisons.

—MIKE GORMAN



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27 ills., 338 pp. \$5.00

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The Child's Developmental Stages

P. Osterrieth, J. Piaget, R. de Saussure, J. M. Tanner, H. Wallon, R. Zazzo, B. Inhelder, and A. Rey

Le problème des stades en psychologie de l'enfant. (Symposium de l'Association de Psychologie Scientifique de Langue Française, Genève, 1955.) Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1956. Pp. 162. 700 fr.

Reviewed by MOTHER M. ELAINE SANDRA

Mother Elaine Sandra is the psychological consultant and the school psychologist for the religious order of the Missionary Canonesses of St. Augustine, an order devoted to the education of youth in the underprivileged areas of the world. She was born in Belgium, studied at Ghent, but learned her psychology at Fordham. She says that she is primarily interested in religion as related to mental health and in the influence of culture on the development of personality.

HUMAN development, conceived as a dynamic process in which intrinsic maturational determinants and environmental influences are interacting, presents challenging problems to psychologists. How does this development occur as a generalized process within the framework of a specific culture? What series of cumulative experiences mark the life-span from birth till the emergence of a mature individual, who behaves more or less like the others in the group, yet in his own idiomatic way? Are there clear-cut developmental stages in this 'process of becoming,' or is a stage no more than an artificial step introduced for the sake of clarity in the presentation of developmental data?

This is the problem which noted European psychologists considered at the 1955 Convention of the *Association de Psychologie Scientifique de Langue Française*, held in Geneva. It might be good for those about to convene a similar convention to consider the valuable features which appear in the *Proceedings* of this one: short, clear-cut papers, elaborate discussion among the participants, and interesting suggestions from the floor. Perhaps some more emphasis might have been given to experimental studies. Psychologists on this side of the Atlantic would have been interested in systematic reports of growth studies undertaken by European psychologists.

As Michotte rightly stated in his introductory word, the participants were faced with "une question terriblement difficile," for the multiplicity and the divergency of the systems indicate the complexity of the problem.

Osterrieth, chairman of the Convention, reported some interesting figures gathered from his study of 18 developmental systems proposed by Western psychologists, apart from those of Piaget and Wallon, who participated in the Geneva Convention. He concluded that these systems indicate 61 different periods in organismic-personality development. Agreement with regard to the limits of these periods was reduced to a minimum, except for the onset of life! Thirty-two of the 61 were found only in a single system, 17 in 2 systems, and so down the line, with maximum agreement on the stage ranging from birth to one year of age, which was found in 7 systems.

IN VIEW of this divergency, participants and discussants pointed to the necessity of clearly defining the basic concept. In the introduction to his paper on mental growth in childhood, Piaget considered the typical characteristics of developmental stages: (a) constancy in the developmental sequence—chronological limits are of secondary importance, for acceleration or retardation is influenced not only by individual growth potentials but also by climactic, racial, and other environmental determinants; (b) integration within the developmental pattern—the picture of development is one of a complex organism made up of various functions interacting in an orderly way from birth to maturity, when integration should be achieved in a normal individual; (c) organization within a specific maturational level—each stage is characterized by a dominant feature, a typical nucleus which gives the period its co-

herence, its uniqueness, and its unity; (d) manifestation of two specific levels within each stage—like many psychologists Piaget considers the necessity of an initial substage of maturational readiness.

The participants and discussants pointed also to the necessity of taking into account the particular aspect of growth under consideration. In his paper on physical development, Tanner stressed the interrelatedness of growth processes. He found high correlations between skeletal and sexual maturation, on the one hand, and cerebral maturation, on the other; but he obtained low correlations between various aspects of physical and psychological growth. It should be noted that this finding was not supported in growth studies made in America, where it was consistently observed that correlation rather than compensation is the case. De Saussure observed interrelatedness between emotional and mental development, but his observation needs still to be verified by more experimental data.

With regard to organismic growth, Tanner looks upon stages as a methodological feature. Here his views accord with most American systems whose position is that development follows a pattern that is continuous, orderly, progressive, and predictable.

Piaget's position is different. In his paper on intellectual development, he stated that the mental-growth curve presents several nodal points that characterize specific levels of maturation. He elaborated an original developmental pattern, including periods, stages, and substages. The early period of sensory exploration is well known to all psychologists. The period of concrete mental processes has also been considered by many students in the field. The logico-mathematical level has been discussed in Piaget's previous works. Behavior signs, which were observed in extensive research conducted by Piaget and Inhelder, constitute the most comprehensive index of developmental potential and current developmental status. As a result of this research, a preliminary report on concept formation is presented in the appendix of these *Proceedings*. The work ties in with the research done in connection with the development of Raven's *Progressive Matrices*. Another interesting experiment on the development of

thought processes, conducted by Rey, is presented in the appendix. Its scope is broadened by the inclusion of clinical as well as normal cases.

De Saussure discussed emotional growth in his paper. His presentation of psychoanalytic developmental stages need not be repeated here. His classification of emotional growth in terms of reaction to conflict is of interest. He distinguished the following stages: (a) pure emotivity with its psychosomatic concomitants; (b) overt reaction with its energy discharge; (c) defense of the ego by means of primary mechanisms; (d) logical or pseudo-logical solution with their different implications for mental health.

In an interesting paper, Wallon considered personality development within a holistic frame of reference. Every child has a unique pattern of growth, but this pattern is a variant of a basic ground plan whose goal is the achievement of adulthood, along the lines of the maturational process characterizing the human species. In discussing maturational levels, Wallon kept away from any quantitative criterion, stressing qualitative growth with its functional, rather than developmental, stages. He discussed the gradual emergence of the ego as the infant is undergoing a series of life experiences which shape his personality until he has learned to live efficiently in a symbolic world of meanings, values, and purposes.

THE *Proceedings* of the Geneva Convention will appeal to many psychologists, especially those interested in genetic and developmental psychology. It is true that the problem of developmental stages was not solved at this Convention. Such a solution was not expected and might not have been desirable. The variety of the systems reflects the complexity of human growth processes. The knowledge of intra-individual development is, moreover, still meager compared with what is known about inter-individual development. Participants and discussants of this Convention agreed upon the necessity of undertaking well-controlled longitudinal studies from the points of view of many disciplines.



A Classical Freudian, Urbane and Wise

Edward Glover

On the Early Development of Mind. (Selected Papers on Psychoanalysis, Vol. I.) New York: International Universities Press, 1956. Pp. xi + 483. \$7.50.

Reviewed by RUTH L. MUNROE

Dr. Munroe is a clinical psychologist, specializing in projective techniques, a field in which she gives instruction in the Graduate Department of Psychology in the City College of New York. In 1955 she published Schools of Psychoanalytic Thought, a book that has sold extremely well and has been taken over by Basic Books. She is also author, with John Levy, of The Happy Family (1938) and, by herself, of Teaching the Individual (1941).

THIS book is the first volume of selected papers by one of the foremost British psychoanalysts. Its title seems slightly misleading, since only a few of the papers deal specifically with early development of any sort, much less of the 'mind' as distinct from other aspects of the personality. The range of topics is broad. Although, as a good Freudian, Dr. Glover considers early libidinal and structural constellations crucial, his focus is on later developments in some pathological syndromes, in problems of education, forms of idealization, dissociation, effect, the meaning of normality. In a number of articles he discusses the status, role, and future of psychoanalysis as a special discipline.

Dr. Glover was one of the very small group of doctors so impressed by Freud's new doctrines as to organize a psychoanalytic society in London before World War I. By his own overly modest description, the group remained rather small and rather conventionally Freudian up to the incursion by European analysts, notably by Melanie Klein about 1927. At first eagerly listened to, Klein's contribution presently began to strike many analysts as radically non-Freudian. The pushing back of the crucial events of childhood to the first few months of life and the bringing of oral sadism to the fore as almost the sole determinant of later developments seems to Glover about as

complete a shift away from the values of Freud's observational materials of later stages of infancy and childhood as the theories of Rank and Jung.

Within the context of British psychoanalysis, Glover's title has a meaning lost upon American readers who are largely unaware of the profound systematic implications of Klein's theory, and of its powerful influence in England. At this writing she is known here for limited statements about infancy and child therapy and has as yet no important following in America. Nor has an understanding exposition of her theory as a complete system been written, for the "paranoid and depressive positions" of infants under six months are not taken seriously enough to warrant attack.

If an American audience is ill prepared for subtle attacks on a psychoanalyst they hardly know, it may be—in some circles at least—quite well prepared for a very intelligent presentation of the classical Freudian position. Glover is a classical Freudian in the best sense of the word. *In outline* many of his ideas about fundamental theory and basic techniques sound conservative to the point of stuffiness and dogmatism. In actual reading they are alive with human understanding about the analyst as well as the patient, and also about the society within which both live. Psychologists working as psychoanalysts in America may be especially heartened by Glover's feeling that affiliation with psychiatry has tended to narrow psychoanalytic understanding, and by his wish for a broader approach to human problems.

This book is not a primer. It assumes basic knowledge of psychoanalysis, and for full appreciation a knowledge of the Kleinian variation, so powerful in England. Granted these premises, Dr. Glover's papers offer a sense of the range and applicability of classical psychoanal-

ysis too often lost in the pedantries and popularizations of its American defendants and prosecutors. The style of writing is, moreover, a delight in its urbane wit, even when one disagrees with the ideas presented.

Let Supervisors Lead

Edwin A. Fleishman, Edwin F. Harris, and Harold E. Burtt

Leadership and Supervision in Industry.

Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1955. Pp. xiii + 110. \$4.00.

Reviewed by CARL H. ELLIOTT

an industrial psychologist from Purdue, who is Employee Relations Manager of the Socony Mobil Oil Company's East Chicago Refinery. He has been actively concerned with the training of supervisory personnel for a long time. He has a university background, but is now engaged in managerial and administrative work with personnel and industrial relations in an oil refinery.

THIS investigation of a training program for supervisors in human relations will be received with knowing nods of assent by many practicing industrial trainers or will serve as a call to arms to others who are champions of this training activity. Training in human relations is supported or opposed with strong feeling by those in industry responsible for training.

The program for supervisory training in human relations studied in this project has been a prototype for programs developed in other companies and educational institutions. Its emphasis is on skills, approaches, and techniques in dealing with people. Instruction is given to first-line foremen in formal classroom situations removed from their local plants.

The authors, in evaluating the program, analyze the role of the leader as affected by industry's social atmosphere as well as the effectiveness of the training practices.

Their findings and speculations con-

cerning leadership suggest several subjects for subsequent study: Is passive, easy-going likeableness—the authors' *consideration factor*—necessarily a correlate of good personal relationships in the industrial plant? Conversely, is an organized, well-structured approach to the management of industrial operations—the authors' *initiating-structure factor*—the antithesis of satisfactory human relationships?

Perhaps most foremen are both passive and rigid, depending upon immediate circumstances, such as time available for completion of work, external pressures (including those brought to bear by superiors), personal evaluations of the degree to which work being performed is critical, and personal interpretations of the reactions of subordinates and peers in the organization. Supervision, the overseeing of work, cannot be completely passive. On the other hand, since supervisors get work done through the cooperation of other people, neither can supervision be entirely rigid and pressing. Further exploration in these directions is needed, if the role of the manager is to be defined in industry today.

Concerning training practices, this research casts doubts on the practicality of much of the training to which first-line foremen are subjected. Is most of our training effort spent on foremen, not because the results are outstanding but simply because foremen are the most accessible of all levels of management and have the least opportunity to resist?

If this suspicion is well founded, coupling it with observations of the authors on the effect of the superior's actions on the subordinate's supervisory behavior leads to the conclusion that training in human relations should begin in the upper levels of an organization and work down. Such an approach would eliminate the comment often heard in human relations classes: "This is wonderful stuff. Why doesn't somebody practice it on me?"

It seems also that training in human relations involves the development of attitudes rather than the learning of specific skills or techniques. Good supervisory practice cannot be formulated into set approaches and replies. Training for the development of attitudes favorable to good human relations, unlike

training in skills and crafts, is, moreover, never complete. Most of this training should be carried out in situations closely related to those in which the individual works, since only those activities in which the trainee is an active participant are likely to affect his attitudes to any appreciable extent.

The supervisor's handling of human relations depends on his state of mind. Training in this area needs to be handled accordingly. The present authors have laid a good foundation for further investigation into the nature of leadership and into the means and effectiveness of training leaders.

How Deaf Boys Adjust

Steven Getz

Environment and the Deaf Child.

Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1956. Pp. xvi + 173. \$3.75.

Reviewed by HELEN S. LANE

who is Psychologist and Principal of the Central Institute for the Deaf in St. Louis and also Associate Professor of Psychology at Washington University. She got started in this field with Max Meyer shortly after her doctorate at Ohio State University more than twenty-five years ago and has been doing research on the deaf, developing tests for the deaf, and writing articles about the deaf ever since.

THE title, *Environment and the Deaf Child*, leads the reader to anticipate a study of the influence of the world we live in on deaf children. The publisher states that "systems of opinion" are put to the test of their relevance to the personal adjustment of the deaf child. Upon reading Getz's volume, the reader finds quotations from a heterogeneous collection of opinions intermingled with some data from experimental studies on the deaf.

The results of the present study are based on sixty-six adolescent deaf boys enrolled in the New York School for the Deaf at White Plains, a public residential school for deaf boys. Thirty-one of the boys are judged well adjusted and thirty-five maladjusted, as based on personality tests, rating scales, and subjective estimates of adjustment.

Getz presents his volume as research that attempts to organize the major trends of thought in this field of education of the deaf, putting the beliefs to test and using as the criterion of value—personal adjustment—"the relative value to the deaf individual of proficiency in speech and speech reading skills and/or in the manual methods of communication."

Seven variables were applied to the two groups of boys:—age on entering school, communication skills with other deaf persons by signs and finger-spelling and in class by speech and speech-reading, vocational adjustment in shop classes, social maturity, reading achievement, visual functioning as related to personality and intellectual functioning.

He reaches conclusions and makes recommendations that seem unwarranted to this reviewer. For example, because the well-adjusted group was significantly superior to the maladjusted in communication with the deaf, Getz suggests that schools should encourage the learning of manual techniques. Is not skill in communication of all children accepted by many as evidence of good adjustment? Would not encouragement of speech skills for out-of-school communication lead to better adjustment? What of the adjustment of the deaf child encouraged in manual techniques when he encounters hearing friends and family?

Using the Vineland Social Maturity Scale, the boys were rated by at least two dormitory supervisors and the superiority of the adjusted group again indicated. Since this scale is frequently used for parent's ratings of the child, such a rating would have given information concerning adjustment away from school, but the data were not obtained by the investigator.

Educators have recognized the educational retardation of the deaf due to the language handicap since the beginning of an educational program for the deaf. Pintner measured the amount of retardation and reported it in 1916. Methods to improve reading skills, increase vocabulary, and encourage reading have been the concern of teachers of the deaf, since long before teachers of the hearing began to worry about reading disability. Many of these references are cited by Getz. His conclusion that consideration be given to methods for the elimination of reading disabilities seems a bit naive

after the evidence he has cited of such work.

The volume contains a comprehensive bibliography of articles on the deaf with quotations from these articles grouped according to points of view. The reader must, however, be discriminating enough to select opinion from experimental evidence and to recognize the prejudices of the authors quoted.

The data presented are interesting for the variables chosen and for the information on a selected group of boys from one type of school. Before broad conclusions can be drawn and educational recommendations can be made concerning "environment and the deaf child," further study is needed including additional variables and other groups of deaf children.

Psychoanalysis: All Mean and No Sigma

Robert R. Mezer

Dynamic Psychiatry in Simple Terms. New York: Springer Publishing Co., 1956, Pp. ix + 174. \$2.50.

Reviewed by JOSEPH D. MATARAZZO

who is a research associate in psychology at the Harvard Medical School and the Massachusetts General Hospital, and who has for the past six years at Washington and Harvard Universities been engaged, among other things, in teaching psychology to medical students, psychiatric residents, and student nurses.

MEZER's book consists of lecture material presented to medical students, student nurses, students of social work, and other groups. It is his aim to present, within the framework of psychoanalytic theory, the basic principles of dynamic psychiatry in easily understandable terms. In attempting to accomplish this goal, he chose to sacrifice detail, presentation of evidence, discussion of opposing points of view, quotations, and references. Whether or not a subject matter has lost substance while gaining simplicity and readability

is a fundamental question posed by many simplified presentations of this type. Several typical examples will illustrate the reason for the reviewer's concern that, in order to simplify his subject matter, Mezer wrote as if (1) psychoanalytic theory were already clearly established, and as if (2) the postulated phenomena of personality development are universal and occur in all individuals in exactly the same way and at exactly the same time without the encumbrance of individual differences.

THUS, in presenting the stages of psychosexual development, the author includes a description of the mother who feeds her child only on schedule, and often leaves its hunger still unsatisfied. "Such a regimen leaves the child orally deprived, so that he grows up feeling that something is missing which should have been there in his childhood.... It is interesting to note that alcoholics fall into this category of orally deprived persons." After describing the mother who tries to 'bowel-train' her child too early, the author concludes: "Such a person grows up with a constant feeling that success in any activity is impossible for him to achieve."

Etiology of psychological illnesses is presented in the same manner. "A neurosis or psychoneurosis is defined as a personality disorder, always due to emotional conflicts early in life, and specifically involving unresolved feelings occurring during the Oedipus complex." An example of this state is presented in another part of the book. During the Oedipal phase, says the book, "there exist within the girl—all at one time—two different feelings toward her mother, love and hate. This ambivalence probably explains why women cannot make decisions so quickly as men; by nature they see both sides of every question."

In marked contrast to this material is Mezer's handling of what is usually called descriptive psychiatry (such topics as schizophrenia, manic-depressive psychosis, lobotomy, insulin therapy, EST). In the reviewer's opinion this section is excellent because, unlike the earlier ones, it is a presentation of well-established clinical descriptions and verified published statistics.

Transatlantic Pressures Toward Uniformity

Joachim Israel

Self-Evaluation and Rejection in Groups.

(Stockholm Studies in Sociology, No. 1.) Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell, 1956. Pp. 250. Sw. kr. 20:-.

Reviewed by BERTRAM H. RAVEN

who is Assistant Professor of Psychology at the University of California at Los Angeles. He has worked at the Research Center for Group Dynamics at Michigan, the Lewin-inspired group, where he took his doctorate. He has also conducted experiments with small groups at the Universities of Nijmegen and Utrecht in the Netherlands.

UNIFORMITY increases with communication. As further evidence, one need only point to this interesting presentation by one of Sweden's very first group psychologists, following twelve post-war years of cultural exchange across the Atlantic. The impact of American social psychology is everywhere evident in this volume. Israel has obviously accepted the assumption that intensive investigation of the small group is both theoretically and practically justified. He shows an American concern for operational definitions, as opposed to 'essences' of concepts. Impressed by the work conducted at the Research Center for Group Dynamics and especially by Leon Festinger and his associates, he has adopted the group experimental technique which is the hallmark of these investigators. This book is primarily dedicated to the extension, clarification, and modification of their theories and research findings. Going far beyond the narrow scope of the title, he provides an outline of theory and experiment in group behavior which compares favorably with any to appear to date on either side of the Atlantic.

Each of the five sections of the volume comprises a coherent whole with cross-references. The first reviews theory and experimentation by Festinger, Deutsch, and related group psychologists. Of

especial interest is Israel's "conceptual outline" in the third section. Here he attempts to remedy some failings of American theoreticians by presenting concise definitions of such concepts as *group*, *goal structure of group*, *group member*, *social norm* (from Ragnar Rommetveit), *group standard*, *social role*, *comparison function*, *social reality function*, *evaluation*, and *rejection*. He then develops twenty-three hypotheses about the process by which opinions and abilities of group members are evaluated by one another and indicates the results of such evaluations. Many of these will appear familiar to group psychologists who have read articles by Festinger and his associates, but others will be welcomed as worthy additions. All are so phrased as to stimulate the reader and to suggest experimental tests. In some cases, the reader may feel that the hypotheses are contradicted by existing literature or by anecdotal evidence. He may then examine the results of three experiments conducted by Israel in which selected hypotheses are ingeniously tested, with varying degrees of success. In some cases the reader may then find that his doubts were justified. The three experiments, incidentally, include the first group experiment to be conducted in Stockholm and the Swedish part of a cross-cultural experiment which was replicated simultaneously in seven West European countries.

THE very precision of the definitions and statements enable the reader to determine more exactly the points in which he may not be in agreement with the author. For example, Israel defines a *group* as a number of individuals who are interdependent with respect to a common goal. Thus he has limited his concept to 'problem-solving groups.' Group membership he defines according to "the extent to which [the individual] is performing at least one activity A which is instrumental to the possible achievement of a goal M of group G." Yet the behaviors which he predicts elsewhere, such as rejection as the result of deviance, should occur in aggregates which have no common goal and should apply to individuals who are contributing nothing to the goals of the group.

Occasionally Israel's extensions are

subject to criticisms which have been leveled against American social scientists—specifically, his tendency towards extreme empiricism at the expense of the use of dynamic and intervening concepts. Thus (1) a person "evaluates" his opinion or ability only if he "expresses statements" about its correctness or propriety. Yet the hypotheses about "evaluation" should hold regardless of whether or not the evaluation is actually expressed. (2) Rejection is defined in terms of overt expulsion or limitation of activities, disregarding earlier experimental indications that a group may redefine its boundaries to exclude a deviate without overtly rejecting him. (3) The force or pressure concept which has characterized the work of Lewin's students has also been disregarded in many of the hypotheses, though included in others as a "tendency." Under some conditions a 'pressure to reject' may, in fact, be countered by a greater pressure resulting from personal attraction. The resulting acceptance of the member, perhaps accompanied by tension in the group, cannot be treated by Israel's present system.

THESE criticisms are, however, minor, in view of the many positive contributions of this volume. They are easily recognized and readily corrected. *Self-Evaluation and Rejection* does not pretend to be a complete and final theoretical work, but a second approximation following Festinger's earlier work. Israel accepts Festinger's statement that a theory which becomes precise too early will have tendencies to become sterile, but he feels that enough evidence has accumulated so that increased precision is now in order.

Students of group behavior in the United States will welcome such works from Scandinavia as this volume and the earlier work by Rommetveit (*Social Norms and Roles*). Here are social scientists who are kind enough to speak our language, literally and figuratively (both books are published in English), but who bring to bear fresh pressures on a group which surely should be concerned about its own inbreeding.

FILMS

BY ADOLPH MANOIL, Film Editor

Films

NOISE AND HEARING

Medical Aspects of High Intensity Noise: General Effects

U. S. Govt. Film. Department of the Navy. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 20 min., 1956.

Medical Aspects of High Intensity Noise: Prevention of Hearing Losses

U. S. Govt. Film. Department of the Navy. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 20 min., 1956. Available through Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, Navy Department, Washington 25, D. C.

Medical Aspects of High Intensity Noise: Ear Defense

U. S. Govt. Film. Department of the Navy. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 20 min., 1956. Available through Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, Navy Department, Washington 25, D. C.

The three films present the problem of noise and its effects on hearing with special reference to military situations.

The sound track reproduces various noises made by gun fire, jet planes and other sources, so that the audience could experience a nearly actual sound intensity. The effect of noise on the ear is analyzed and measured.

The films emphasize the need for measuring hearing losses and detecting their first signs. High-intensity noises are shown to affect not only the ear but also general behavior. The use of the audiometer is also demonstrated.

The nature of certain military operations is such that the use of protective devices is indispensable, not only for the protection of the ear, but also for communication purposes. Man-to-man and man-to-machine communication can become almost impossible under conditions of high-intensity noise.

Various types of protective devices,

such as ear-plugs and over-the-ear protectors are shown. Their fittings and use are also demonstrated.

All three films, although intended for the information and training of military personnel, could also be profitably used with classes in general and physiological psychology in the study of the ear, its protection, and the general effects of high-intensity noise on the human body.

SUMMARY OF THE SEARCH

The Search Sums Up: Summary Program

CBS Television, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 27 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y., and other distributors. \$125.00, rental \$5.00.

This film, as its title indicates, is a summary of the 27 films in the series *The Search*. Besides its recapitulation value for those who have seen the series, it presents a particularly instructive view on contemporary American research as conducted in various universities and other centers of higher learning.

Recognized authorities in different fields are shown as they comment on particular problems.

The film as a whole represents a challenging commentary on the research efforts, motivation, and achievement of American scientists.

DISCUSSION FILMS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Training for responsible citizenship constitutes a basic educational obligation in a democracy.

The social and moral values that guide and actually make up the fabric of a democratic society need to be learned but not as abstractions unrelated to social realities. The learning process should take place within a definite social context and with active participation on the part of the learner. Opinions have to be expressed, convictions have to be

defended, and, in general, attitudes and actions should pass the test of public debate.

Life in a democracy represents a process of give and take within the limits imposed by the respect for the individual and his rights. This is the perspective under which democratic principles and participation in the life of the community have to be acquired.

At the level of mass education the 16-mm. educational film is a particularly appropriate tool for the achievement of such educational goals. The discussion-type film in particular provides the opportunity for participation and public debate.

The educational effectiveness of such films is to be measured in terms of amount of participation and the resulting attitudinal changes. Such films, moreover, raise problems that in themselves involve characteristic psychological, social, and moral aspects of social life. Depending on the group viewing the films and the leader, the discussion can take place at different levels.

Following are short descriptions of a series of 16-mm. motion picture films produced by the National Film Board of Canada and available through McGraw-Hill Text-Film Department, 330 W. 42nd St., New York 36, N. Y.

All the films are 16-mm. (and 35-mm.), black and white, sound. They are intended especially for secondary school pupils and informal discussion of teenagers. The general title of the series is *What Do You Think?*

One Man's Opinion. 6 min., 1953.

In a high school campaign to raise money for a welfare fund various propaganda and high-pressure techniques are being used. The winning class, moreover, is to receive a special recognition award.

The campaign works undue pressure on certain members of the class who cannot well afford making the one-dollar contribution.

One member of the class is opposed, in principle, to the methods used and withholds his dollar, an action that could make the difference between winning or losing the reward for the class.

Could one man's conviction be allowed to defeat the group's aim?

The problem is opened for discussion by the audience.

Depending on the level of the class, and the ability of the leader, the problem can be analyzed at different levels of complexity. It also can be viewed in terms of group behavior, motivational factors, or individual attitudes.

Conformity versus individual freedom within the limits imposed by ethical principles as to community needs can also be analyzed.

The film can be used for a detailed analysis of basic social psychological principles relevant to the position of the individual within a group of peers.

The Majority Vote. 7 min., 1953.

A high-school girl is elected as class representative to the student council. In the council, she is upholding a measure curtailing extracurricular activities. This view runs contrary to the wishes of the majority who elected her. The situation is open for discussion as a problem between her justifiable action and the wishes of her own 'electorate.' She was elected to represent her class, but once elected she has become a member of a larger group: should her actions attempt to integrate the needs of her own group to those of the larger one? That attitude might result in an apparent failure of adequate representation.

"What is the proper relationship between people and their representatives in government?"

The question is open for discussion by the audience. Here again, the discussion can consider various aspects of the problem at different levels and from different points of view.

The Honest Truth. 5 min., 1953.

The film story is built around a popular senior student, Mary, who having a leading role in a school play performs poorly.

The editor of the school newspaper wants to write an objective appraisal of her performance, but his friend and others think she should be treated with more consideration for her feelings.

"Should these students risk hurting Mary's feelings and possibly discouraging her by telling the honest truth, or should they put her feelings foremost?"

The problem is opened for discussion by the audience.

The conflict of values represented by the situation in the film exceeds the local

conditions and can be analyzed in terms of general behavior patterns.

Having Your Say. 7 min., 1954.

The members of a teen-age club are denied the use of the facilities of a community center as a retaliatory measure against their supposed destructive behavior.

The community center's committee, however, acted without hearing the teenage club's side of the story.

The boys decide to hold a meeting of protest. The head of the community center's committee wants to participate in the meeting, but some of the boys do not think he should be allowed to come.

The film thus raises the problem of the right to a hearing of both sides in a controversy.

The problem could be discussed in all its social, psychological, and ethical implications beyond the specific problem presented in the film.

Getting What You are After. 5 min., 1954.

A girl in need of a job jeopardizes her chances of getting it by informing another girl of the opening. The other girl does not need the job as much as the first one but she has the right to compete for it.

The problem raised is whether the first girl should or should not have informed the other one of the job. The second girl, moreover, could use the influence of her mother in landing the job. Thus a second problem is raised: "Is it fair to get what you are after, no matter how you go after it?"

Both questions are opened for discussion by the audience. The problem of the standards of fair play in business competition is thus acutely presented and could be discussed in all its motivational and value implications.

Who's Running Things? 6 min., 1954.

The members of a high-school gym class elect a student to run the gym while the teacher is away. The elected leader imposes certain rules that are not gladly accepted by the group.

The problem can be discussed with reference to the specific situation as presented in the film, but also in its general aspects as applicable to all situations resulting in similar conflicts.

The Public's Business. 6 min., 1954.

The problem raised in this film is whether a person in public office could use his position for private gain.

In a committee of high-school students planning for refreshments at a forthcoming sports day, a boy who works for a caterer, offers to secure the services of his boss in the preparation and distribution of refreshments.

The offer is accepted, but the profit the boy is to make as a commission from his boss is questioned on ethical grounds.

The problem is opened for discussion.

Here again, the problem is general in its implications and could be analyzed in terms of basic ethical principles.

The following two films are part of a series entitled *What is Your Opinion?*

Community Responsibility.

11 min., 1954.

Good citizenship requires participation in a variety of community activities. This participation in many cases might interfere with one's own work.

The problem is to what extent and within what limits the members of the community should be expected to sacrifice time and energy for the good of the community.

The film presents the problem through a discussion among a group of civic leaders as they react to the negative attitude of one of them. His refusal to take on new duties is based on the fact that one such commitment leads to another and thus his personal freedom becomes greatly limited.

The members of the group have different opinions; some think that he simply avoids responsibility, others think that he may be right.

The problem of responsibility toward the community with the safeguarding of personal freedom is thus opened for discussion by the audience.

The film is intended for lay audiences and the nature of the problem is such that it can be discussed in all its social, psychological, and moral implications.

Leaving It to the Experts.

8 min., 1954.

Extreme specialization and technological progress have created the expert

who appears as the only person qualified to discuss or assess certain social or personal problems.

The dependence on the expert could be used as a means to shirk individual responsibility and even create a general habit of "leaving it to the experts." This ambiguity constitutes a serious problem in a democratic society in which individual responsibility is a basic social and political asset.

The problem is presented through the discussion between two farmers, one of them inviting the other to join a group being formed to discuss the world situation as it affects the farmer. The two farmers express different opinions as to the use of joining such a group. One of them contends that his job is to be a good farmer and joining would only interfere with his work: some things should be left to the experts.

Thus the problem is opened for discussion by the audience. It concerns individual responsibility in participation in the discussion of problems beyond one's immediate needs.

The film is intended for lay audiences, but the problem is of acute interest in education for democracy, for it deals with individual responsibility.

All the foregoing films present common problems of interest in education for citizenship in a democracy. Their effectiveness depends on the active participation of the audience and the competence of the discussion leader.

They are also valuable as material for detailed analyses of underlying social and psychological factors.

The problems are common, but their adequate understanding in all their implications require insight and some familiarity with basic psychological principles.

SAFETY RESEARCH

The Search: Automobile Safety Research

Cornell University. CBS Television, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 27 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y. and other distributors. \$125.00, rental \$5.00.

The problem of automobile safety with emphasis on physical prevention measures is presented.

The Automobile Crash Injury Research conducted by Cornell University shows the importance of safety belts, padding materials for the interior of the cars, and the development of new car designs.

The film as a whole indicates the importance of research, the need for accurate information on the nature of car accidents, and the possibility of preventing crash injuries through improvements in car design.

The film could be used as supplementary information on psychological approaches to the study of automobile accidents.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The Search: Community Education

University of Louisville. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 27 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, 18 East 41st Street, New York 17, N. Y., and other distributors. \$125.00, rental \$5.00.

The place of the university in the promotion of community education is clearly illustrated.

The University of Louisville in cooperation with the Board of Education and the Public Library provides a comprehensive educational program easily available to all members of the community. Various film sequences show children and adults availing themselves of different offerings, such as lectures, art classes, art exhibits, recordings, movies, microfilm books, and public concerts.

All of these educational offerings are freely available and the public is encouraged to use them. This film is a good example of cooperation between a university and the community for the effective promotion of educational values.

Classes in educational psychology and educational administration can use the film as an example of practical application of basic educational principles.

MENTAL HEALTH

Anger At Work

A. A. Hellams, psychiatric consultant. Produced at the University of Oklahoma in cooperation with the Oklahoma State Department of Health. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 21 min., 1956. Available through International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Illinois; and other distributors. \$125.00.

Displacement as an ego-defense mechanism is illustrated through the presentation of everyday situations at work and at home. The process of displacement, moreover, interferes with individual efficiency and might create inappropriate human relations.

The film explains the mechanism of displacement and points out its negative aspects as well as its positive, constructive solutions.

The problem is treated at the level of the average audience. Its practical everyday aspects are clearly illustrated with emphasis on the importance of appropriate understanding of the mechanism itself, such that constructive approaches become possible.

The film could be profitably used with lay audiences, especially if it is followed by the discussion of the specific incidents presented in the film. If used with classes in psychology, characteristic behavioral problems illustrated in the film could be used as starting points for a critical analysis of the concept of displacement and its individual and social implications.

The illustrative material of the film is such that it should be particularly effective as an educational tool with industrial and business audiences.



People foolishly imagine that the vast dimensions of social phenomena afford them excellent opportunities to penetrate farther into the human soul; they ought, on the contrary, to realize that it is by plumbing the depths of a single personality that they might have a chance of understanding those phenomena.

—MARCEL PROUST



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